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LIFE OF SIR RICHARD STEELE.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

SIR Richard Steele, eminently distinguished as an ingenious and polite writer, was born at Dublin, about the year 1676. His father, a counsellor at law, had been some time Secretary to the Duke of Ormond, but he was of English extraction, and one branch of the family possessed a considerable estate in the county of Wexford. Steele, when very young, was carried over to London, and put to school at the Charter-house, whence he was removed to Merton College, Oxford, where he soon gave evident proofs of his talents and abilities. During his residence here, he actually finished a comedy, but by the advice of one of his fellow students, who having read it, condemned it as unworthy of his genius, he thought proper to suppress it; and this sacrifice seems to set his good sense and modesty in the most favorable point of view.

On leaving the university, which he did without taking any degree, Steele resolved to enter into the army; but this step was highly displeasing to

his friends; and not being able to get a better station than that of a private gentleman in the Horse Guards, he accepted it, though it lost him the succession to his Irish estate.

Steele had abundance of good nature, a generous openness of disposition, and a vivacity and brilliancy of wit, which rendered him the darling of the soldiers, and soon procured him an Ensign's commission in the guards. In this situation he gave himself up to every indulgence which youth or genius could prompt him to pursue; yet it appears, that he did not pass the whole of his time without some hours of cool reflection; for at this period he wrote his little treatise called the *Christian Hero*, intended, as he himself tells us, to be a check upon his passions. For this purpose he had kept it some time by him, and printed it in 1701, with a dedication to Lord Cutts, who had not only appointed him his private Secretary, but procured for him a company in Lord Lucas's regiment of Fusiliers.

The same year he brought out his comedy called the *Funeral*, or *Grief A-la-mode*. This performance procured him the favor of King William, who resolved to give him some distinguished marks of his esteem; and though all these pleasing hopes vanished on his Majesty's death, they were afterwards revived and realised in the beginning of Queen Anne's reign, when he was appointed Gazetteer. This office he owed to the friendship of Lord Halifax, and the Earl of Sunderland, and he discharged the duties of it with the utmost diligence and fidelity. He had been recommended to these ministers by his school-fellow, Mr. Addison, and that gentleman assisted him in bringing forward the comedy called the *Tender Husband*, or the *Accomplished Fools*, which was acted in 1704, with great applause. His next play, however, the *Lying Lover*, met with a very different reception, and upon this disappointment from the stage, he turned his wit and humor into another channel, and early in the year 1709, began to publish the *Tatler*, which he undertook in concert with the celebrated Dr. Swift. This admirable periodical paper, kept up with great spirit, was universally approved and admired. His reputation as a writer was perfectly established by it, and during the course of its publication, he was appointed a Commissioner of the Stamp duties in 1710.

Upon the change of the ministry the same year, he joined the party of the Duke of Marlborough, who had several years entertained a strong friendship for him, and upon his Grace's dismissal from all his employments the year following, Mr. Steele addressed a letter of thanks to him, for the services which he had rendered to his country. As our author still continued to hold his place in the Stamp-office under the new administration, he abstained from political subjects, but being more intimately connected with Mr. Addison, he dropt the *Tatler*, and

afterwards, by the assistance of that steady friend, carried on the same plan, under the title of the *Spectator*. The success of this paper being equal to that of the former, he was encouraged to begin another, called the *Guardian*, which made its first appearance in the beginning of the year 1713, and was concluded in the month of October following.

In the course of this work, his thoughts taking a stronger bias to politics, he engaged with great warmth against the ministry; and being determined to procure a seat in the House of Commons, he immediately removed all obstacles to this view, by resigning his place in the Stamp-office to the Earl of Oxford, and by giving up at the same time a pension, which had been paid him by the Queen, as a servant to Prince George, of Denmark. After this, he wrote his famous *Guardian* on the demolition of Dunkirk, which was published August 7th, 1713, and the parliament being dissolved the next day, he produced some other severe political tracts against administration.

Upon the meeting of the new parliament, Mr. Steele having been returned a member for the borough of Stockbridge, in Hampshire, took his seat accordingly; but he was expelled a few days after, for writing several scandalous and seditious libels. Immediately after his expulsion, he published proposals for writing the History of the Duke of Marlborough; about the same time he wrote the *Spinster*, and in opposition to the *Examiner*, established a paper, called the *Reader*, and continued publishing several other things in the same spirit, till the death of the Queen. Immediately after this event, as a reward for his services, he was taken into favor by her successor, King George I.; appointed Surveyor to the Royal stables of Hampton-court, and put into the commission of the peace in the county of Middlesex. He likewise procured in 1714, a licence as chief Manager of the Royal Company of

Comedians,

Comedians, which he got changed the same year into a patent from His Majesty, appointing him governor of the said company during his life, and to his executors, administrators, or assigns, for the space of three years afterwards.

He was chosen also one of the representatives for Boroughbridge, in Yorkshire, and April 28th, 1715, his Majesty conferred upon him the honor of knighthood. In the August following he received five hundred pounds from Sir Robert Walpole, for special services, and being thus highly encouraged, he triumphed over his opponents in several pamphlets which he wrote this and the following year. In 1717, he was appointed one of the Commissioners for enquiring into the estates forfeited by the rebellion in Scotland, which laid him under the necessity of visiting that part of the kingdom, where he received from some of the nobility and gentry the most distinguishing marks of respect, so that he began to turn his thoughts towards perfecting the union of the two kingdoms, by extending it to the policy in the church as well as state. For this purpose he had several conversations with some of the Presbyterian ministers, concerning the restoration of episcopacy, the ancient church government of that nation. Sir Richard wished well to the interests of religion, and as he imagined that an union would promote it, he had some idea of proposing it at Court, but that, as was likely, proved abortive.

In the year 1718 he buried his second wife, who had brought him a handsome fortune, and a good estate in Wales, but neither that nor other ample additions made to his income could satisfy all his demands; the thoughtless vivacity of his temper often reduced him to little shifts of wit for his support, and the project of the *Fish-Pool* this year owed its birth chiefly to Sir Richard's necessities. This vessel was intended to carry fish alive, and without wasting, to any part of the kingdom, but notwithstanding all his towering hopes, this scheme

proved very ruinous to him; for after he had been at an immense expence in contriving and building his vessel, besides the charge of the patent, which he had procured, it turned out upon trial to be a mere project. His plan was to bring salmon alive from the Coast of Ireland, but these fish, though supplied by this contrivance with a continual stream of water while at sea, yet uneasy at their confinement, they shattered themselves to pieces against the sides of the pool, so that when they were brought to market they were worth very little.

The year following Sir Richard opposed the remarkable Peerage Bill in the House of Commons, and on account of this opposition to the Court, his licence for acting plays was revoked, and his patent rendered ineffectual, at the instance of the Lord Chamberlain. He exerted himself to the utmost to prevent this great loss, but finding every direct avenue of approach to his royal master completely barred against him by his powerful opponent, he resolved to appeal to the public, in hopes that his complaints by that channel would reach the ear of his sovereign, though in an indirect course. With this view he formed the plan of a periodical paper, to be published twice a week, under the title of the *Theatre*, the first number of which appeared on the 2d of January, 1720. The misfortune, however, of losing favour at Court, like many others in life, drew after it a train of more. During the publication of this paper, in which he assumed the feigned name of Sir John Edgar, he was attacked by Mr. John Dennis, the noted critic, in a very abusive pamphlet, entitled the *Character and Conduct of Sir John Edgar*, called by himself sole Monarch of the Stage in Drury-lane, and his three Deputy Governors, in two Letters to Sir John Edgar; but to this insult our author made a proper and very spirited reply in the *Theatre*.

Whilst Steele was making every exertion, and struggling to save himself from ruin, he found leisure to employ

his pen against the mischievous South Sea scheme, which had almost brought the nation to destruction in 1720. Next year he was restored to his office and authority in the Play House, in Drury-lane; and soon after he brought out his celebrated comedy called the Conscious Lovers, which was acted with very great success in 1722. The profits hence arising must have been very considerable, besides what he received for the copy of the work, and five hundred pounds given him by the King, to whom he dedicated it. Yet notwithstanding these ample recruits, being reduced to the utmost extremity about the year following, he sold his share in the Play House, and soon after commenced a law suit with the managers, which in 1726 was determined against him. Of this affair, Mr. Cibber gives the following account in his apology, "In all the transactions of life there cannot be a more painful circumstance than a dispute in law with a man with whom we have long lived in an agreeable amity. But when Sir Richard, proceeds he, to get himself out of difficulties, was obliged to throw his affairs into the hands of lawyers and trustees; upon that consideration the friend and the gentleman had no more to do in the matter. Thus, whilst Sir Richard no longer acted for himself, it can be no wonder if a flaw was found in our conduct for the law to make work with. About three years before the lawsuit commenced, upon Sir Richard's total absenting himself from all care and management of the stage, which by our articles he was equally and jointly with us obliged to attend, we let him know that we could not go on at that rate, but that if he expected to make the business a sinecure, we must be paid for our extraordinary care of it; we therefore intended to charge for it a salary of 11. 13s. 4d. every acting day for our management. To which, in his composed manner, he answered, that to be sure we knew what was fittest to be done better than he did; that he had always taken a delight in making us easy, and had no

reason to doubt of our doing him justice; and he never once objected to or complained of this for near three years together. But though no man alive can write better of economy, yet perhaps no man is more above the drudgery of practising it. He was often in want of money, and while we were in friendship with him we assisted his occasions; but this compliance had so unfortunate an effect, that it only heightened his importunity of borrowing more, and the more we lent the less he minded us, or shewed any concern for our welfare. Upon this we stopt our hands at once, and peremptorily refused to advance another shilling till by the balance of our accounts it became due to him. This treatment, though we hope not in the least unjustifiable, we have reason to believe so ruffled his temper, that he at once was as short with us as we had been with him, for from that day he never came near us; nay, he not only continued to neglect what he should have done, but did what he ought not to have done; he made an assignment of his share without our consent, in manifest breach of our agreement; our part suffered by this neglect, since his rank and figure in the world were of extraordinary service to us. The cause was heard before Sir Joseph Jekyl, and the issue was, that Sir Richard not having made any objection to what we had charged for management for three years together, as our proceedings had been all transacted in open day, without any clandestine intention of fraud, we were allowed the sums in dispute above mentioned, and Sir Richard not being advised to apply to the Lord Chancellor, both parties paid their own costs, and determined this should be the last suit between them."

Having now again for the last time brought his fortune, by the most heedless profusion, into a desperate condition, he was rendered altogether incapable of retrieving the loss by a paralytic stroke, which greatly impaired his understanding. Upon this unhappy circumstance he retired to his seat

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at Llanganor, in Wales, where he paid the last debt to Nature on the 21st of September, 1729, and was privately interred, according to his own desire, in the church of Caermarthen, near that place. Among his papers were found two plays in manuscript, one of which, called the *Gentleman*, was founded upon the Eunuch of Terence, the other was entitled, *The School of Akin*.

Sir Richard married as his first wife a lady of Barbadoes, with whom he received a valuable plantation in that island, on the death of her brother, who was taken by the French at sea, as he was coming to England, and carried to France, where he ended his days. After the death of this wife, who brought him no children, he married Mary, the daughter of Jonathan Scurlock, Esq. of Llanganor, in Caermarthenshire, by whom he had three children, a son, named Eugene, and two daughters, Elizabeth and Mary. His son was some years under the care of Mr. Solomon Lowe, of Blythe House, Hammersmith, who considered him as a young man of promising parts, but being taken home to his father's house, in York Buildings, where he was suffered to act plays in a great room there, called the *Censorium*, his constitution was broke by frequent heats and colds, and he soon after died. His daughter, Elizabeth, being the only child then living, was married young, in the month of May, 1731, to the Honourable John Trevor, one of the Welsh Judges.

As Sir Richard was beloved while living, his death was very much regretted. He was a man of sincere and extensive benevolence, a friend to the friendless, and, as far as his circumstances would permit, the father of every orphan. His language is chaste and manly; he admitted virtue, and painted it in his works as amiable as it really is. Generous actions he celebrates with a warmth that is peculiar to those only who are possessed of good hearts. To envy or malevolence he was altogether a stranger;

he was never jealous when he beheld others rising into reputation, and so far was he from arrogating any praise to himself, from his conjunction with Mr. Addison, that he was the first who desired him to distinguish his papers in the *Spectator* by some particular mark, and when that worthy friend died, he was a faithful guardian of his fame, notwithstanding the aspersion which Mr. Tickel has thrown on him. Sir Richard's greatest error was want of economy; but the philanthropy of his disposition often led him into embarrassments from which he found it very difficult, with all his abilities, to extricate himself. Among many instances of his good nature, his kindness to the unfortunate Mr. Savage, natural son to Earl Rivers, was none of the least. He declared in this gentleman's favor with all the ardor and benevolence which constituted his character, promoted his interest with the utmost zeal, related his misfortunes, applauded his merit, took all opportunities of recommending him, and asserted, that the inhumanity of his mother had given him a right to call every good man his father. He even proposed to establish him in some settled business, and to have married him to a natural daughter, on whom he intended to bestow a fortune of a thousand pounds; but though he was always lavish of his future bounties, he conducted his affairs in such a manner, that he was seldom able to keep his promises, or execute his intentions. He, however, gave Savage a certain allowance till the marriage should be consummated; and during this state of things, he once desired Savage, with an air of the utmost importance, to come very early the next morning, which Savage did, and found the chariot at the door, with Sir Richard waiting for him. What was intended Savage could not conjecture, and being unwilling to enquire, seated himself with Sir Richard in it. The coachman was ordered to drive on, and

and they hurried with the utmost expedition to Hyde Park-corner, where they stopped at a petty tavern, and retired to a private room. Sir Richard then informed his companion that he intended to publish a pamphlet, and that he had invited him thither that he might write for him. They then sat down to the work, Sir Richard dictated, and Savage wrote, till the dinner they had ordered was set upon the table. Savage being surprised at the meanness of the entertainment, after some hesitation ventured to call for wine; which Sir Richard, not without some reluctance, suffered to be brought. When dinner was finished, they again sat down to their pamphlet, which they completed in the afternoon. Savage now imagined that his task was finished, and that Sir Richard would call for the bill; but he was deceived, for the knight told him, that he had no money, and that the pamphlet must be sold before the dinner could be paid for. Savage was, therefore, obliged to go and offer their new production to sale for two guineas, which, with some difficulty, he obtained. Sir Richard then returned home, having retired that day only to avoid his

creditors, and composed the pamphlet merely for the purpose of discharging the reckoning. This anecdote was related by Savage himself, who told another shift equally uncommon. Sir Richard having one day invited to his house several persons of the first quality, they were surprised at the number of liveries which surrounded the table; and, after dinner, when wine and mirth had freed them from the observation of rigid ceremony, one of them enquired of Sir Richard, how he could with his slender fortune maintain such an expensive train of domestics. Sir Richard freely confessed that they were fellows of whom he wished much to get rid; and being asked why he did not discharge them, he declared they were bailiffs who had introduced themselves with an execution, and that, as he could not send them away, he thought it best to put them in livery, that they might do him some credit while they staid. His friends were highly diverted with this expedient, and by paying the debt, discharged the attendants; but they obliged Sir Richard to promise that they should never find him again graced with such a retinue.

DESCRIPTION OF THE NATIVES OF NEW SOUTH WALES, AND
SOME ACCOUNT OF THEIR CUSTOMS. EXTRACTED FROM CAP-
TAIN TENCH'S NARRATIVE AND PHILLIP'S VOYAGE.

THE inhabitants of New South Wales are far from being a stout race of men, though nimble, sprightly and vigorous: the deficiency of one of the fore teeth of the upper jaw, mentioned by Dampier, was observed in most of the men. Governor Phillip having remarked this, pointed out to them that he likewise had lost one of his front teeth; this occasioned a general clamour, and it was thought he derived some merit from this circumstance. Their organs of sight are far from being defective, as Dampier asserts; on the contrary, they appear to be very

quick and piercing. Their colour Captain Cook thinks is rather inclined to a deep chocolate than an absolute black; but the filth they are covered with prevents the true colour of the skin from appearing. At some of their interviews with the English, several droll instances of their mistaking the negroes on board this fleet for their own countrymen, have occurred.

Notwithstanding the disregard they shew for finery, they are fond of adorning themselves with scars, which increase their natural deformity. It is hardly possible to imagine any thing

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more hideous in a human shape than one of those savages so scarified: the scars appear of a singular nature; sometimes the skin is raised from the flesh for several inches, appearing as if filled with wind. These scars are in various parts of the body, particularly the breast and arms, and one man, putting aside his hair, shewed a scar on his head, then pointing to other parts of the body, seemed to intimate that he thought himself highly honoured by these marks. The perforation of the cartilage of the nose, and putting a long bone or stick through it, was observed in many, and the same humorous name as Captain Cook's seamen applied to it (the sprit-sail yard) was continued. The custom of daubing themselves with white paint is frequent with both sexes; but, unlike the inhabitants of the Pacific Ocean, they reject the beautiful feathers which the birds of their country afford. The arts of life have made very little progress among them, exclusive of their weapons of defence and a few stone hatchets, very rudely fashioned, their ingenuity is confined to manufacturing small nets, and fish hooks, which shew some degree of ingenuity. The assertion, therefore, in Hawkesworth, that they have no nets, is false; some of them have been brought to England: the twine of which they are made appears to be composed of the fibres of the flax plant, with very little preparation; it is very strong and heavy, and so well twisted as to have the appearance of whip-cord. Some of these lines appear to have been made of the fur of some animal, and others look like cotton. The meshes of their nets are formed of very large loops, very artificially inserted into each other, but without any knots.

On many of the rocks are found delineations of the figures of men and birds, very poorly cut. Their fish hooks are made of the inside of a shell, very much resembling mother-of-pearl. When a fish has taken the bait, and is supposed to be too strong to be landed with line, the canoe is

paddled to shore, and while one man gently draws the fish along, another stands prepared to strike it with a spear, and in this attempt they seldom fail.

The inhabitants occasionally display great marks of courage. An old man stole a spade, and was taken in the fact; Governor Phillip gave him two or three slight slaps on the shoulder, on which the old man seized a spear, and coming up to the Governor, seemed, for some time, determined to strike, although he was then surrounded by his officers and men.

At times, the people near the new settlement are much distressed for food. In the summer they would eat neither the shark or the shingray, but in winter any thing was acceptable. A young whale was driven on shore, which they were busily employed in carrying away: all the people now seen had large pieces of it, which appeared to have been at the fire long enough to scorch the outside only. In this state they always eat their fish, never broiling it for more than a few minutes; they broil also the fern root, and another root, of which the plant is not yet known. They usually eat together in families. Among the fruits used by them is a kind of wild fig, and they eat also the kernels of a fruit, resembling a pine-apple. In the winter months fish is very scarce. The inhabitants are thought to change their situation often.

Their sense of smelling appears very acute; one of them having touched a piece of pork, held out his finger, for his companion to smell, with strong marks of disgust. They will accept bread and meat, but generally throw it away soon after. Fish they accept very eagerly.

From particular discoveries, it is evident they burn the dead. The ground being observed to be raised in several places, Governor Phillip caused them to be opened, and in one of them found a jaw-bone, half consumed, and some ashes. From the manner in which the ashes are deposited, it appears that the body has been

been laid at length, raised from the ground a little space, and consumed in that posture; afterwards lightly covered with mould.

They seem perfectly honest among themselves, and will leave their spears and implements on the beach, in full confidence of their remaining untouched.

Of the use or benefit of cloathing, these people appear to have no comprehension, though their sufferings from the climate they live in, strongly point out the necessity of a covering from the rigour of the seasons. Both sexes, and those of all ages, are invariably found naked. But it must not be inferred from this, that custom so inures them to the changes of the elements, as to make them bear with indifference the extremes of heat and cold; for we have had visible and repeated proofs, that the latter affects them severely, when they are seen shivering, and huddling themselves up in heaps in their huts, or the caverns of the rocks, until a fire can be kindled.

Than these huts nothing more rude in construction, or deficient in convenience, can be imagined. They consist only of pieces of bark laid together in the form of an oven, open at one end, and very low, though long enough for a man to lie at full length in. There is reason, however, to believe, that they depend less on them for shelter, than on the caverns with which the rocks abound.

To cultivation of the ground they are utter strangers, and wholly depend for food on the few fruits they gather; on the roots they dig up in the swamps; and the fish they pick up along shore, or contrive to strike from their canoes with spears. Fishing, indeed, seems to engross nearly the whole of their time, probably from its forming the chief part of a subsistence, which, observation has convinced us, nothing short of the most painful labour, and unwearied assiduity can procure. When fish are scarce, which frequently happens

they often watch the moment of our hauling the seine, and have more than once been known to plunder its contents, in spite of the opposition of those on the spot to guard it: and this even after having received a part of what had been caught. The only resource at these times is to shew a musket, and if the bare sight is not sufficient, to fire it over their heads, which seldom has failed of dispersing them hitherto, but how long the terror which it excites may continue is doubtful.

The canoes in which they fish, are as despicable as their huts, being nothing more than a large piece of bark tied up at both ends with vines. Their dexterous management of them, added to the swiftness with which they paddle, and the boldness that leads them several miles in the open sea, are, nevertheless, highly deserving of admiration. A canoe is seldom seen without fire in it, to dress the fish by, as soon as caught: fire they procure by attrition.

From their manner of disposing of those who die, as well as from every other observation, there seems no reason to suppose these people cannibals; nor do they ever eat animal substances in a raw state, unless pressed by extreme hunger, but indiscriminately broil them, and their vegetables, on a fire, which renders these last an innocent food, though in their raw state many of them are of a poisonous quality: as a poor convict who unguardedly eat of them experienced, by falling a sacrifice in twenty-four hours afterwards. If bread be given to the Indians, they chew and spit it out again, seldom choosing to swallow it. Salt beef and pork they like rather better, but spirits they never could be brought to taste a second time.

The only domestic animal they have is the dog, which in their language is called Dingo, and a good deal resembles the fox dog of England. These animals are equally shy of us, and attached to the natives. One of them is now in the possession

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of the Governor, and tolerably well reconciled to his new master.

There is no part of the behaviour of these people, that has puzzled us more, than that which relates to their women. Comparatively speaking we have seen but few of them, and those have been sometimes kept back with every symptom of jealous sensibility; and sometimes offered with every appearance of courteous familiarity. Cautious, however, of alarming the feelings of the men on so tender a point, we have constantly made a rule of treating the females with that distance and reserve, which we judged most likely to remove any impression they might have received of our intending ought which could give offence on so delicate a subject. And so successful have our endeavours been, that a quarrel on this head has in no instance, that I know of, happened. The tone of voice of the women, which is pleasingly soft and feminine, forms a striking contrast to the rough guttural pronunciation of the men. Of the other charms of the ladies I shall be silent, though justice obliges me to mention, that, in the opinion of some amongst us, they shew a degree of timidity and bashfulness, which are, perhaps, inseparable from the female character in its rudest state. It is not a little singular, that the custom of cutting off the two lower joints of the little finger of the left hand, observed in the Society Islands, is found here among the women, who have for the most part undergone this amputation. Hitherto we have not been able to trace out the cause of this usage. At first we supposed it to be peculiar to the married women, or those who had borne children; but this conclusion must have been erroneous, as we have no right to believe that celibacy prevails in any instance, and some of the oldest of the women are without this distinction; and girls of a very tender age are marked by it.

Among a party of the natives at Broken Bay, they found one woman who was remarkably talkative and

cheerful. This our travellers regarded as a singular instance, as the women of this country are much more sedate than the men, and are apparently under great awe and subjection. They are treated with very little tenderness, and many of them were seen employed in the canoes with very young children at their breasts.

The cause of this amputation of the fingers of females only, has never been discovered; it must, however, be a very painful operation, especially considering the imperfection of their instruments, nothing having been seen in the possession of these people capable of performing this amputation, but a shell fixed on a short stick, and used for pointing their spears, and separating the oysters from the rocks. More fingers than one are never cut, and it is the same finger in every subject.

On first setting foot in the country, we were inclined to hold the spears of the natives very cheap. Fatal experience has, however, convinced us, that the wound inflicted by this weapon is not a trivial one; and that the skill of the Indians in throwing it, is far from despicable.

From circumstances which have been observed, we have sometimes been inclined to believe these people at war with each other. They have more than once been seen assembled, as if bent on an expedition. An officer one day met fourteen of them marching along in a regular Indian file, through the woods, each man armed with a spear in his right hand, and a large stone in his left; at their head appeared a chief, who was distinguished by being painted. Though in the proportion of five to one of our people, they passed peaceably on.

That their skill in throwing the spear sometimes enables them to kill the kangaroo we have no right to doubt, as a long splinter of this weapon was taken out of the thigh of one of these animals, over which the flesh had completely closed; but

we have never discovered that they have any method of ensnaring them, or that they know any other beasts but the kangaroo and dog. Whatever animal is shewn them, a dog excepted, they call kangaroo: a strong presumption that the wild animals of the country are very few.

Soon after our arrival at Port Jackson, I was walking out near a place where I observed a party of Indians, busily employed in looking at some sheep in an enclosure, and repeatedly crying out, Kangaroo, kangaroo! As this seemed to afford them pleasure, I was willing to increase it by pointing out the horses and cows, which were at no great distance. But unluckily, at the moment, some female convicts, employed near the place, made their appearance, and all my endeavours to divert their attention from the ladies became fruitless. They attempted not, however, to offer them the least degree of violence or injury, but stood at the distance of several paces, expressing very significantly the manner they were attracted.

It would be trespassing on the reader's indulgence were I to impose on him an account of any civil regulations, or ordinances, which may possibly exist among this people. I declare to him, that I know not of any, and that excepting a little tributary respect which the younger part appear to pay those more advanced in years, I never could observe any degrees of subordination among them. To their religious rites and opinions I am equally a stranger. Had an opportunity offered of seeing the ceremonies observed at disposing of the dead, perhaps, some insight might have been gained; but all that we at present know with certainty is, that they burn the corpse, and afterwards heap up the earth around it, somewhat in the manner of the small tumuli, found in many counties of England.

The country is more populous than it was generally believed to be in

Europe at the time of our sailing. But this remark is not meant to be extended to the interior parts of the continent, which there is every reason to conclude from our researches, as well as from the manner of living practised by the natives, to be uninhabited. It appears as if some of the Indian families confine their society and connections within their own pale: but that this cannot always be the case we know; for on the north-west arm of Botany Bay, stands a village, which contains more than a dozen houses, and perhaps five times that number of people; being the most considerable establishment that we are acquainted with in the country. As a striking proof, besides, of the numerousness of the natives, I beg leave to state, that Governor Phillip, when on an excursion between the head of this harbour and that of Botany Bay, once fell in with a party, which consisted of more than three hundred persons, two hundred and twelve of whom were men; this happened only on the day following the murder of two convict ruff cutters, and his Excellency was at the very time in search of the murderers, on whom, could they have been found, he intended to inflict a memorable and exemplary punishment. The meeting was unexpected to both parties, and, considering the critical situation of affairs, perhaps not very pleasing to our side, which consisted but of twelve persons, until the peaceable disposition of the Indians was manifest.

Some young gentlemen belonging to the *Sirius* one day met a native, an old man, in the woods; he had a beard of considerable length, which his new acquaintance gave him to understand, by signals, they would rid him of, if he pleased; stroking their chins, and shewing him the smoothness of them at the same time; at length the old Indian consented, and one of the youngsters taking a penknife from his pocket, and making use of the best substitute for lather he

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could find, performed the operation with great success, and, as it proved, much to the liking of the old man, who in a few days after reposed a confidence in us, of which we had hitherto known no example, by paddling along-side the Sirius in his canoe, and pointing to his beard. Various arts were ineffectually tried to induce him to enter the ship; but as he continued to decline the invitation, a

barber was sent down into the boat along-side the canoe, from whence, leaning over the gunnel, he complied with the wish of the old beau, to his infinite satisfaction. In addition to the consequences which our sanguine hopes led us to expect from this dawning of cordiality, it affords proof, that the beard is considered by this people more as an incumbrance than a mark of dignity.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE CABINET OF MR. VAILLANT, (WHOSE TRAVELS INTO THE INTERIOR PARTS OF AFRICA WERE REVIEWED IN OUR MAGAZINE FOR APRIL).

MR. Vaillant was born at Surinam; his father, who is a Frenchman, and who in a second marriage espoused a niece of the famous Boerhaave, was well informed in natural history. The son had from his infancy an ardent thirst for the science which his parents loved and cultivated. Having sailed from his native place to Holland, then to France, he made a voyage to the Southern part of Africa. Thus he has visited three divisions of the globe; and in all has proved himself an indefatigable hunter and naturalist, endowed with an ardent mind, and a courage equal to all encounters. He has passed a good part of his life in collecting for himself materials to form a cabinet. He has applied himself to the study of the animal kingdom, and particularly to birds. However, among the curiosities which are peculiar to his collection, there are many others he has acquired, which belong to Asia, and many countries which he has not visited.

We find in his possession, armours, quivers, ornaments, shells, and instruments of the savages of Africa and America.

A collection of serpents, lizards, and fish, from South America. Among the fish there is one viviparous, hitherto unknown, and which is only eighteen inches long; and another, which is at once both oviparous and viviparous, that is to say, that after

it has brought forth eggs, it also brings forth living young ones.

A collection of butterflies from the different parts of the world.

A number of foreign quadrupeds. Among these is an animal hitherto unknown in France, and the largest hitherto known, since it is 16 feet 4 inches high. This is the Giraffe, or Camelopardalis.

Mr. Vaillant has only brought home the skin, ornamented with lat bots, and the head, but it is not yet mounted, because his apartment is not high enough, and he is obliged to prepare a particular apartment for such a monster.

A complete collection of birds of France, almost all of them in pairs, male and female.

A complete collection of moths and flying insects. Although these are not composed of above sixty species, they, however, afford a beautiful picture, as well from the brilliancy and the variety of the colours, as from the minute size of each individual; their smallness appears the more striking when compared with the large birds of prey, which are hung up on high.

It is not possible to enter into any detail on the different objects. I shall only remark that among the birds, Mr. Vaillant has more than three hundred, which are not to be met with in any cabinet in Europe; and besides those which are already put into cases, he has many others

which are not yet mounted. He alone, assisted by his family, prepares them, for his father, his wife, his son, and every body about him are naturalists. But what is the most valuable is, he has found out the secret to hinder the insects from injuring his animals. In most cabinets they preserve them only by taking many and very troublesome precautions, and even then in a short time the skin and plumes are injured. It is true that many naturalists pretend to have acquired the same secret; M. Manesse even published a work on the subject last year. But to prove the efficacy of their method requires some years trial, which Mr. Vaillant has had. A great number of his birds have been preserved above seventeen years; some are in glass cases, others in open cases, and all are in perfect preservation: nor are they scented with camphor, or other smells which are so disagreeable in other cabinets. Formerly they had no method of preserving them but by drying them entirely; he follows a different method, by which his birds, &c. acquire a degree of flexibility, and he will take the great feathers of their

wings in his hand and form a fan with them.

Among his cases there is one which, from the beauty of the birds it contains, presents a most delightful spectacle; when the freshness, the lustre, and brilliancy of their plumes are considered, you would be sure they are alive. It is not possible to say which to admire the most, the variety of their attitudes or of their shapes; but the spectator is particularly struck with the magnificence and boundless variety of their colours. Here the pencil of nature is exhibited in all its luxury and richness, and defies every attempt of human art to equal them.

The naturalist we are speaking of, to the many amiable talents he possesses, joins that of being an able designer, which he has given to many of his animals. Two young turtles, as white as snow, which are under a glass, by themselves, are peculiarly to be admired.

Mr. Vaillant, besides the travels he has published, has an account of another preparing, in which he penetrated further into Africa.

OF THE FORM GIVEN BY CERTAIN PEOPLE TO THEIR CHILDREN'S HEADS.

THERE are a great number of absurd practices which may be traced to a very high antiquity. Hippocrates speaks of a very ancient people, who inhabited the borders of the Black Sea, whom he calls *Macrocephales*, or long heads. These people had the strange practice of pressing the head out in length of their new-born children, and among whom this method, repeated from generation to generation, had at length rendered this conformation of the head natural and hereditary.

The greater part of the islanders in the Archipelago, some of the people of Asia, and even some of those of Europe, still press their children's heads out lengthwise. We may observe also that the Epirots, many people of America, &c. are all born with

some singularity in the conformation of their heads; either a flatness on the top, two extraordinary protuberances behind, or one of each side, singularities which we can only regard as an effect of an ancient and strange mode, which at length is become hereditary in the nation. According to the report of many travellers, the operation of compressing the head of a child lengthwise, while it is yet soft, is with a view insensibly to enlarge the interval between the two eyes, so that the visual rays turning more to the right and left, the sight would embrace a much larger portion of the horizon; the advantage of which they are well acquainted with, either in the constant exercise of hunting, or on a thousand other occasions. Ever since the

16th century, the missionaries established in the countries inhabited by the savages of America, have endeavoured to destroy this custom, and we find in the sessions of the third council of Lima, held in 1585, a canon which expressly prohibits it. But if it has been repressed one way, the free negroes and Maroons, although Africans, have adopted it, since they have been established among the Caribs, solely with

the view of distinguishing their children, which are born free, from those who are born in slavery.

The Omapuas, a people of South America, according to P. Veigh, press the heads of their children so violently between two planks that they become quite sharp at the top, and flat before and behind. They say they do this to give their heads a greater resemblance to the moon.

DESCRIPTION OF A GENERAL HUNTING IN NORTHERN ASIA, AGREEABLE TO THE LAWS AND INSTITUTIONS OF THE MOGUL EMPERORS.

THE antiquity of Hunting is almost as great as that of the world, it has been the amusement at all times of the greatest princes. The Roman emperors signalized themselves greatly in this exercise; they made it a part of their grand public feasts, and followed it in great magnificence. But we may assert that the Mogul emperors have by far surpassed them all, as will appear by the description we are going to give of a general hunting, made under the reign of Genghis Khan, the first emperor of the Turks and Tartars, whose posterity still reign in China, in India, and in Tartary. This description is taken from the original authors, who have written their history, and confirmed by the customs of like huntings, continued by the emperors his successors. The oriental authors who confirm this account, are all in the library of the French king, and those who are able to consult them in the original, will find they perfectly agree with this description.

Genghis Khan being at Termed, in the heart of winter, and being prevented by the rigour of the season from continuing the war, determined to undertake a grand hunting match, to keep his soldiers in the exercise of their arms. For this purpose, as Prince Tonschican, grand huntsman of the empire, was absent, he ordered the *neviun* or sub-lieu-

tenant general, to prepare a grand chase, and to extend it as far as he could. The *neviun*, in execution of this order, informed all the huntsmen thereof; he told them the great extent of ground they were to surround, and sent them away express to fix the bounds. He afterwards commanded the officers of the army, in pursuance of the power he had over it, to follow the huntsmen as fast as they could, at the head of their troops, to occupy their respective quarters, and to act according to the orders they knew the emperor had prescribed to regulate the chase. As soon as the officers had conducted their soldiers to the rendezvous, they ranged themselves in single, and in some places in double files round the circle or vast extent marked out by the huntsmen, and which the Moguls called *Nerke*. They then caused it to be published, although every body before knew it, that to drive any beast out of that circle was a crime punishable with death. This space thus marked out, occupied a march of four months, and inclosed a vast extent of country, containing forests, woods, &c. and all the beasts within them. The centre of this space to which all the beasts must in the end be driven, was marked by a large plain.

The officers of the chase immediately dispatched couriers to the lieutenant general of the hunt, to acquaint

acquaint him with the dispositions made, and to request his orders for the march. These the lieutenant went to receive of the great Khan, and then distributed them to the couriers, who immediately set off to deliver them to the officers of the hunt, after having been acquainted with the emperor's quarters, in order to find him the more readily when they returned; not that his quarters were invariably fixed, for the prince often followed the motions of his troops; but as it was always in one direction, whatever movement it made, they could always readily find him.

The couriers had no sooner brought the orders to the officers of the hunt, than they delivered them to the officers of the army. Immediately the tymbals, the trumpets, and the horns, are every where heard sounding a march. The march begins every where at one time and in the same manner, the soldiers marching as close as their numbers will admit, every one pressing towards the center, and driving the beasts before them. Behind marched the officers, attentive to the conduct of their men, and armed as for a military expedition. However, though they were armed with helmets, bucklers, cimitars, bows, and a quiver full of arrows, axes and clubs, they were commanded not to shoot at or wound any of the beasts, whatever violence they might commit. Severe punishments were denounced against any one who should employ their arms against them; they were only allowed to make loud cries to frighten them, and to prevent their forcing the line.

Thus they marched every day, driving the beasts before them towards the center, and encamped every night. The military service was not however neglected; a regular command was given, advanced guards and centinels were posted: they were duly relieved; those who did not do their duty regularly were punished, alarms were frequently

given, and in short every thing was punctually observed as in a time of war.

The march continued for many weeks, till a large river which the troops could not ford interrupted it. They were then obliged to halt, and give notice to the others, in order always to preserve an equality in their march; mean time those who had the river to pass, pushed on the beasts, who crossed it by swimming. They afterwards passed it on large slight leather bags, tied by cords; many soldiers sat on these bags, tied to the tail of a horse, the horse passed by swimming, and drew the bags after him, being led by a man who was a good swimmer.

Having passed the river they resumed their march; this was always regular, and the circle decreasing as they advanced, the beasts began to feel themselves pressed, and, as if they were sensible of the design to force them on, some gained the mountains, others threw themselves into the best covered vallies, others, quitting the ordinary routes and paths, saved themselves in the thickneses of the forests or copses, which, when they perceived the approach of the hunters, they would quit, to seek other retreats. Dens and even burrows could not escape, for they had every kind of instrument proper to open the ground, and there was not any animal, even the rabbit, which they did not force from their hiding places. At last, for want of room, different species mixed with each other. There were some kinds of animals become furious, and gave much trouble. It was not without extraordinary exertions that the sounds of the instruments and the cries of the soldiers forced them to fly.

As many of the animals took refuge on the mountains, as we have already observed, some troops of hunters were detached to drive them from thence, which was not effected without difficulty, for it was not permitted to wound them, and they often resisted. Other troops descended even down the precipices, which served as

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retreats for certain animals, and these had not less trouble in driving them on. Not a beast was left either in forest or cavern.

Mean time, couriers were dispatched from all sides to inform the Khan of what passed in the hunting, and to carry him an account of the princes and hunters [who joined in it, and of the diversion it afforded, of the embarrassments it occasioned, and of the different movements of the animals. The emperor, who had other views in this than merely hunting, went often himself to observe the state of the troops, to see if his orders were punctually obeyed, and that the military discipline was not relaxed.

The space to which this immense number of animals was confined, becoming every day less, and it being impossible to force the wild beasts further forward, some of these threw themselves on the weaker animals, and destroyed them; but this fury could not be long exercised, for as the troops continued to drive them forward, and as they now began to draw within the compass of ground, the emperor wished to have them, the lieutenant general, and the great huntsman, caused the trumpets, the tymbals, and all sorts of instruments to sound. This noise, joined to the cries of the hunters and soldiers, caused so great an alarm among the animals, that they lost all their ferocity. The lions and tigers grew tame, the bears and wild boars seemed like the most timid animals, to be as it were astonished.

When the Khan saw these animals collected into the small space he had himself directed, he prepared to enter it, which he did to the sound of trumpets, holding a drawn sword in one hand, a bow in the other, and on his shoulder a quiver full of arrows. He was accompanied by the princes his children, and all his general officers. He began the slaughter himself, attacking some of the most ferocious beasts; some of them resumed their native courage, and defended themselves well. He afterwards retired to an eminence, and seated himself on a throne prepared for him, from whence he observed the strength and address of the princes and his officers, who attacked the animals; the lords afterwards entered, and made a great slaughter.

Lastly, the princes, grandsons of Genghis Khan, followed by many of the young nobility, presented themselves before the throne, and beseeched the emperor to grant life and liberty to the beasts then remaining in the *nerke*; this he agreed to, praising the courage of his troops, who were immediately dismissed to their quarters. The beasts who had escaped the arrows or the sword, perceiving themselves no longer furrounded, escaped, and regained their forests and ancient retreats.

Such was this celebrated hunt, which lasted four months. It would have been continued longer, if they were not fearful of being engaged in it when the operations of war would commence.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE MARBLE MOUNTAINS IN EGYPT,

BY MR. BRUCE.

WE saw quantities of small pieces of various sorts of granite, and porphyry, scattered over the plain, which had been carried down by a torrent, probably from quarries of ancient ages; these were white, mixed with black spots; red, with green veins and black spots. After this,

all the mountains on the right hand were of red marble in prodigious abundance, but of no great beauty. They continued as the granite did, for several miles along the road, while the opposite side was all of dead green, supposed serpentine marble.

It was one of the most extraordinary

nary fights I ever saw; these mountains before us had all the appearance, the one of having been sprinkled over with Havannah, the other with Brazil snuff. I wondered, that, as the red is nearest the sea, and the ships going down the Abyssinian coast observe this appearance within lat. 26° , writers have not imagined this was called the *Red Sea* upon that account, rather than for the many weak reasons they have relied upon. The highest mountain we found upon examination, to be composed of serpentine marble; and through about one-third of the thickness ran a large vein of jasper, green, spotted with red. Its exceeding hardness was such as not to yield to the blows of a hammer; but the works of old times were more apparent in it than in any mountain we had seen. Ducts or channels for carrying water transversely, were observed evidently to terminate in this quarry of jasper, a proof that water was one of the means used in cutting these hard stones.

The porphyry shews itself by a fine purple sand, without any gloss or glitter in it, and is exceedingly pleasant to the eye. It is mixed with the native white sand, and fixed gravel of the plains. Green unvariegated marble is generally seen in the same mountain with the porphyry. When the two veins meet, the marble is for some inches brittle, but the porphyry of the same hardness as in other places.

The granite is covered with sand, and looks like stone of a dirty brown colour; but this is only the change and impression the sun and weather have made upon it; for upon breaking it you see it is grey granite, with black spots, with a reddish cast, or blush over it. This red seems to fade and suffer from the outward air, but upon working or polishing the surface, this colour again appears. It is in greater quantity than the porphyry, and near the Red Sea. Pompey's pillar seems to have been from this quarry.

Next to the granite, but never, as

I observed, joined with it in the same mountain, is the red marble. It is covered with sand of the same colour, and looks as if the whole mountain were spread over with brick dust. There is also a red marble with white veins, which I have often seen at Rome, but not in principal subjects; I have also seen it in Britain. The common green, (called serpentine) looks as if covered with Brazil snuff. Joined with this green, I saw two samples of that beautiful marble they call *Isabella*, one of them with a yellowish cast, which we call *Quaker-colour*; the other with a blueish, which is commonly termed *Dove-colour*. These two seem to divide the respective mountains with the serpentine. In this green, likewise, it was we saw the vein of jasper, but whether it was absolutely the same with this, which is the bloody jasper, or blood-stone, is what we had not time to settle.

I should first have made mention of the *verde-antico*, the dark green with white irregular spots, because it is of the greatest value, and nearest the Nile.

This is produced in the mountains of the plain green or serpentine, as is the jasper, and is not considerable by the dust or any particular colour upon it.

First, there is a blue steaty stone, exceedingly even and smooth in the grain, solid, and without sparks or colour. When broken it is something lighter than a slate, and more beautiful than most marble; it is like the lava of volcanos, when polished. After lifting this, we come to the beds of *verde antico*; and here the quarrying is very obvious, for it has been uncovered in patches, not above twenty feet square. Then, in another part the green stone has been removed, and another pit of it wrought.

Mr. Bruce makes a very judicious observation, that from this discovery we need no longer wonder from whence came the immense quantity of marble used by the ancients.

REMARKS

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REMARKS ON THE ASTRONOMY OF THE BRAHMINS.

BY JOHN PLAYFAIR, A. M. F. R. S. OF EDINBURGH, AND PROFESSOR OF MATHEMATICS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH.

1. **S**INCE the time when Astronomy emerged from the obscurity of ancient fable, nothing is better known than its progress through the different nations of the earth. With the era of Nabonassar regular observations began to be made in Chaldea, the earliest which have merited the attention of succeeding ages. The curiosity of the Greeks was soon after directed to the same object; they were the first who endeavoured to explain and connect by theory, the various phenomena of the heavens, and the syntaxis of Ptolemy continued for more than five hundred years, without opposition or improvement, to direct the astronomers of Egypt, Italy, and Greece. After the sciences were banished from Alexandria, his writings made their way into the East, and the caliphs of Bagdat cultivated astronomy with success. The Persians followed their example, borrowing whatever mathematical knowledge was still preserved among the ruins of the Grecian empire. The conquests of Zingis and Timour retarded, but did not stop the progress of astronomy in the East; their grandsons were renowned for their love of science. Mean time, being brought by the Arabs into Spain, it likewise found in Alphonso of Castille, both a disciple and a patron. Soon after, being carried into the North, it exercised the genius of Copernicus, of Kepler, and of Newton, and became the most perfect of all sciences.

2. In the progress of astronomy from the Indus to the Ganges, there is scarce a step which cannot be accurately traced. The various systems that have prevailed in all those countries are visibly connected with each other; they are all derived from one original, and would incline us to believe that the manner in which men begin to observe the heavens and to

reason about them, is an experiment of the human race which has been made but once.

It is therefore matter of curiosity to find beyond the Indus, a system of astronomical knowledge which appears to make no part of the great body of science which has enlightened other countries of the earth; a system in the hands of men which follow its rules without understanding its principles, and who can give no account of its origin, except that it lays claim to an antiquity far beyond the period to which with us the history of the heroic ages is supposed to extend.

3. We owe our first knowledge of this astronomy to Mr. La Loubere, who returning in 1687, from an embassy to Siam, brought with him an extract from a Siamese manuscript, which contained tables and rules for calculating the places of the sun and moon. The manner in which the rules are laid down rendered the principles on which they are founded obscure. After that two other sets of astronomical tables were sent to Paris, by the missionaries of Indostan, but they remained unnoticed till the return of M. le Gentil from India, where he had been to observe the transit of Venus, in 1769. This academician employed himself, during the long stay which his zeal for science induced him to make in that country, in acquiring a knowledge of the Indian astronomy. The Brahmins thought they saw in the business of an astronomer, the marks of a *cast* that had some affinity to their own, and began to converse with M. Le Gentil more familiarly than with other strangers. A learned Brahmin of Trivalore, having made a visit to the French astronomer, instructed him in the methods which he used for calculating eclipses of the sun and moon, and communicated to him the tables and rule

that are published in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, for 1772. Since that time the ingenious and eloquent author of the History of Astronomy, has dedicated an entire volume to the explanation and comparison of these different tables, where he has deduced from them many interesting conclusions. The subject, indeed, merited his attention, for the Indian astronomy has all the precision necessary for resolving the great questions with respect to its own origin and antiquity; and is, by no means, among the number of those imperfect fragments of ancient knowledge, which can lead no farther than conjecture, and which an astronomer would gladly resign to the learned researches of the antiquary, or the mythologist.

4. It is from these sources, and chiefly from the elaborate investigations of the last mentioned work, that I have selected the materials of the paper, which I have now the honor to lay before the society.

5. The astronomy of India, as you already perceive, is confined to one branch of the science. It gives no theory, nor even any description of the celestial phenomena, but satisfies itself with the calculation of certain changes in the heavens, particularly of the eclipses of the sun and moon, and with the rules and tables by which these calculations must be observed. The Brahmin, seating himself on the ground, and arranging his shells before him, repeats the enigmatical verses that are to guide his calculation, and from his little tablet of palm leaves takes out the numbers that are to be employed in it. He obtains his result with wonderful certainty and expedition; but having little knowledge of the principles on which his rules are founded, and no anxiety to be better informed, he is perfectly satisfied, if, as it usually happens, the commencement and duration of the eclipse answer within a few minutes to his prediction. Beyond this his astronomical enquiries never extend, and his observations, when he makes

any, go no farther than to determine the meridian line, or the length of the day at the place where he observes.

The objects, therefore, which this astronomy presents us, are principally three. 1. Tables and rules for calculating the places of the sun and moon. 2. Tables and rules for calculating the places of the planets. 3. Rules by which the phases of eclipses are determined. Though it is chiefly to the first of these that our attention at present is to be directed, the two last will also furnish us with some useful observations.

6. The Brahmins, like all other astronomers, have distinguished from the rest of the heavens, that portion of them through which the sun, moon, and planets continually circulate. They divide this space, which we call the zodiac, into twenty-seven equal parts, each marked by a group of stars or a constellation. This division of the zodiac is extremely natural in the infancy of astronomical observation, because the moon completes her circle among the fixed stars, nearly in twenty-seven days, and so makes an actual division of that circle into the twenty-seven equal parts. The moon too, it must be remembered, was, at that time, the only instrument, if we may say so, by which the position of the stars on each side of her path could be ascertained, and her own irregularities were unknown; she was by the rapidity of her motion Eastward, well adapted for this purpose. It is also to the phases of the moon that we are to ascribe the common division of time into weeks, or portions of seven days, which seems to have prevailed almost over the whole earth. The days of the week are dedicated by the Brahmins, as by us, to the seven planets; and, what is truly singular, they are arranged precisely in the same order.

7. With the constellations that distinguish the twenty-seven equal spaces, into which their zodiac is divided, the astronomers of India have connected none of those figures of animals which are among us of

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so ancient, and yet so arbitrary an original. M. Le Gentil has given us their names and configurations. They are formed, for the most part, of small groups of stars, such as the Pleiades or the Hyades, those belonging to the same constellation being all connected by straight lines. The first of them, or that which is placed at the beginning of their zodiac, consists of six stars, extending from the head of Aries to the foot of Andromeda, in our zodiac, and occupying a space of about ten degrees in longitude. These constellations are far from including all the stars in the zodiac. M. Le Gentil remarks, that those stars seem to have been selected which are best adapted for marking out, by lines drawn between them, the places of the moon in her progress through the heavens. At the same time that the stars in the zodiac are thus arranged into twenty-seven constellations, the ecliptic is divided, as with us, into twelve signs, of thirty degrees each. This division is purely ideal, and is merely for the purpose of calculation. The names and emblems by which these signs are expressed, are nearly the same as with us; as there is nothing in the nature of things to have determined this coincidence, it must, like the arrangement of the days of the week, be the result of some ancient and unknown communication.

8. That motion by which the fixed stars all appear to move eastward, and continually to increase their distance from the place that the sun occupies at the vernal equinox, is known to the Brahmins, and enters into the composition of all their tables. They compute this motion to be at the rate of $54''$ a year, so that their *annus magnus*, or the time in which the fixed stars complete an entire revolution, is 24,000 years. This motion is too quick by somewhat less than $4''$ a year; an error that will not be thought great, when it is considered, that Ptolemy committed one of $14''$ in determining the same quantity. Another circumstance, which is common

to all tables, and at the same time peculiar to the Indian astronomy, is that they express the longitude of the sun and moon, by their distance from the beginning of the moveable zodiac, and not, as is usual with us, by their distance from the point of the vernal equinox. The longitude is reckoned in signs of 30° as already mentioned, and each degree is subdivided into $60'$, &c. In the division of time their arithmetic is purely sexagesimal: they divide the day into sixty hours, the hour into sixty minutes, &c. so that their hour is twenty-four of our minutes, their minutes twenty-four of our seconds, and so on.

9. These remarks refer equally to all the tables. We are now to take notice of what is peculiar to each, beginning with those of Siam.

In order to calculate for a given time, the place of any of the celestial bodies, three things are requisite. The first is the position of the body in some past instant of time, ascertained by observation; and this instant, from which every calculation must set out, is usually called the *epoch* of the tables. The second requisite is the mean rate of the planets motion, by which is computed the arch in the heavens, that it must have described in the interval between the epoch and the instant for which the calculation is made. By the addition of this to the place at the epoch, we find the mean place of the planet, or the point it would have occupied in the heavens, had its motion been subject to irregularity. The third is the correction, on account of such irregularity, which must be added to the mean place, or subtracted from it, as circumstances require, in order to have the true place. The correction thus made, is, in the language of astronomy, called an equation; and when it arises from the eccentricity of a planets orbit, it is called the equation of the centre.

10. The epoch of the tables of Siam does not go back to any very remote period. M. Cassini, by an ingenious

analysis of their rules finds that it corresponds to the 21st of March, in the year 638, of our era, at three in the morning, on the meridian of Siam. This was the instant at which the astronomical year began, and at which both the sun and the moon entered the moveable zodiac. Indeed, it is to be observed, that in all tables, the astronomical year begins when the sun enters the moveable zodiac, so that the beginning of this year is continually advancing with respect to the seasons, and makes the complete round of them in 24,000 years.

From the epoch above mentioned, the mean place of the sun for any other time is deduced, on the supposition that in 800 years there are contained 292,207 days. This supposition involves it in the length of the syderal year, or the time that the sun takes to return to the beginning of the moveable zodiac, and makes it consist of 365 days, 6 hours, 12 minutes, 36 seconds. From this, in order to find the tropical year, or that which regulates the seasons, we must take away 21 minutes, 55 seconds, as the time which the sun takes to move over the 54 seconds, that the stars are supposed to have advanced in the year, there will remain 365 days, 5 hours, 50 minutes, 41 seconds, which is the length of the tropical year that is involved, not only in the tables of Siam, but likewise, very nearly, in all the rest. This determination of the length of the year is but 1 minute 53 seconds greater than that of De la Caille, which is a degree of accuracy beyond what is to be found in the more ancient tables of our astronomy.

11. The next thing with which these tables present us, is a correction of the sun's mean place, which corresponds to what we call the equation of the centre, or the inequality arising from the eccentricity of his orbit, in consequence of which he is alternately retarded and accelerated, his true place being for one half of the year, left behind the mean, and for the other, advanced before it. The point where the sun is placed,

when his motion is slowest, we call his apogee, because his distance from the earth is the greatest: but the Indian astronomy, which is silent with respect to theory, treats this point as nothing more than what it appears to be, viz. a point in the heavens, where the sun's motion is the slowest possible, and about 90° distant from that, where his greatest inequality takes place. This greatest inequality is here made to be 2° , about $16'$ greater than it is determined by the modern astronomy of Europe. This difference is very considerable, but we shall find that it is not to be ascribed wholly to error, and that there was a time when the inequality in question was nearly of the magnitude here assigned to it. In the other point of the sun's path this inequality is diminished, in proportion to the size of the mean distance from the apogee, that is, nearly as in our own tables. The apogee is supposed to be 80° advanced beyond the beginning of the zodiac, and to retain always the same position among the fixed stars, or to move forward at the same rate with them. Though this supposition is not accurate, as the apogee gains upon the stars about 10 seconds annually, it is much nearer the truth than the system of Ptolemy, where the sun's apogee is supposed absolutely at rest, so as continually to fall back among the fixed stars, by the whole quantity of the precision of the equinoxes.

12. In these tables the motions of the moon are deduced, by certain intercalations, from a period of nineteen years, in which she makes nearly 235 revolutions; and it is curious to find at Siam, the knowledge of that cycle, of which the invention was thought to do so much honour to the Athenian astronomer, Meton, and which makes so great a figure in our modern calendars. The moon's apogee is supposed to have been in the beginning of the moveable zodiac, 621 days after the epoch of the 21st of March, 638, and to make an entire revolution in the heavens in the space of 3232 days. The first of these sup-

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Suppositions agrees with Mayer's tables to less than a degree, and the second differs from them only by 11 hours, 14 minutes, 31 seconds; and if it is considered that the apogee is an ideal point in the heavens, which even the eyes of an astronomer cannot directly perceive, to have discovered its true motion so nearly, argues no small correctness of observation.

13. From the place of the apogee, thus found, the inequality of the moon's motion, which is to reduce her mean to her true place, are next to be determined. Now, at the oppositions and conjunctions, the two greatest of the moon's inequalities, the equation of the centre, and the equation both depend on the distance from the apogee, and therefore appear but as one equality. They also, partly, destroy one another, so that the moon is retarded or accelerated only by their difference, which when greatest, is, according to Mayer's tables, 4 deg. 57 minutes, 42 seconds. The Siamese rules, which calculate only for oppositions and conjunctions, give accordingly, but one inequality to the moon, and make it when greatest, 4 deg. 56 minutes, not 2 minutes less than the preceding.

14. The Siamese MS. breaks off here, and does not inform us how the astronomers of that country proceed in the remaining parts of their calculation, which they seem to have undertaken merely for some purpose in astrology. M. Cassini, to whom we are indebted for the explanation of these tables; observes, that they are not originally constructed for the meridian of Siam, because the rules direct to take away 3 minutes for the sun, and 40 minutes for the moon, being the motion of each for 1 hour 13 minutes from their longitudes, calculated as above. The meridian of the table is therefore 1 hour, 13 minutes, or $18^{\circ} 15'$ minutes West of Siam; and it is remarkable that this brings us very near to the meridian of Benares, the ancient seat of Indian learning. The same agrees nearly with what the Hindoos call the

first meridian, which passes through Ceylon and the Banks of Ramancor. We are, therefore, authorised, or rather, we are necessarily determined to conclude that the tables of Siam came originally from Hindostan.

15. Another set of astronomical tables, now in the possession of the Academy of Sciences, was sent to the late M. De Pille, from Chirsnabouram, a town in the Carnatic, by Father Du Champ, about the year 1750. Though these tables have an obvious affinity to what have already been described, they form a much more regular and extensive system of astronomical knowledge. They are fifteen in number, and include, besides the mean motions of the sun, moon, and planets, the equations to the centre of the sun and moon, and two corrections for each of the planets, the one of which corresponds to its apparent, and the other to its real inequality. They are accompanied also with precepts and examples, which Father Du Champ received from the Brahmins of Chirsnabouram, and which he has translated into French.

The epoch of these tables is less ancient than that of the former, and answers to the 10th of March, at sunrise, in the year 1491 of our era, when the sun was just entering the moveable zodiac, by which almost all the Indian eras are distinguished. The places which they assign at that time to the sun and moon, agree very well with the calculations made from the tables of Mayer and De La Caille. In their mean motions, they indeed differ somewhat from them, but as they do so equally for the sun and the moon, they produce no error in determining the relative position of these bodies; nor of consequence in calculating the phenomena of eclipses. The sun's apogee is here supposed a motion swifter than that of the fixed stars, by about one second in nine years, which, though it falls greatly short of the truth, does credit to this astronomy, and is a strong mark of originality. The equation of the sun's centre is somewhat less, here than

than in the tables of Siam, it is 2 deg. 10 minutes, 30 seconds; the equation of the moon's centre is 5 deg. 2 minutes, 47 seconds; her path, where it intersects that of the sun, is supposed to make both of the apogee and node, are determined very near to the truth.

16. Another set of tables, sent from India, by Father Patouillet, were received by M. De l'Isle, about the same time with those of Chirsnabouram. They have no name of any particular place affixed to them, but as they contain a rule for determining the length of the day, which answers to the latitude of 16 deg. 16 minutes, M. Bailly thinks it probable that they come from Narlapour.

The precepts and examples which accompany these tables, though without any immediate reference to them, are confined to the calculations of the eclipses of the sun and moon; but the tables themselves extend to the motion of the planets, and very much resemble those of Chirsnabouram, except that they are given with less detail, and in a form much more enigmatical. The epoch of the precepts which M. Bailly has revolved with great ingenuity, goes back no farther than the year 1569, at midnight, between the 17th and 18th of March. From this epoch the places of the sun and moon are computed as in the tables of Siam, with the addition of an equation, which is in-

deed extremely singular. It resembles that correction of the moon's motion which was discovered by Tycho, and which is called the annual equation, because its quantity depends not on the place of the moon, but on the place of the sun, in the ecliptic. It is every where proportional to the inequality of the sun's motion, and is nearly a tenth part of it. The tables of Narlapour make their annual equation only $\frac{1}{10}$ of the sun's; but this is not their only mistake, for they direct the equation to be added to the moon's longitude, when it ought to be subtracted from it, and *vice versa*. Now it is difficult to conceive from whence the last mentioned error has arisen; for though it is not at all extraordinary that the astronomers who constructed these tables, should mistake the quantity of a small equation, yet it is impossible that the same observations which informed them of its existence, should not have determined whether it was to be added or subtracted. It would seem, therefore, that something accidental must have occasioned this error; but however that be, an inequality in the lunar motions, that is found in no system with which the astronomers of India can have had any communication, is at least a proof of the originality of their tables.

[To be continued.]

EXPERIMENTS ON THE CONGELATION OF QUICKSILVER IN ENGLAND. BY MR. RICHARD WALKER, IN A LETTER TO HENRY CAVENDISH, ESQ.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

ON December 28th, a favourable opportunity offered of beginning some experiments on the congelation of mercury.

For this purpose I prepared a mixture of diluted vitriolic acid (reduced by water till its specific gravity was to that of water as 1,5596 to 1) and strong fuming nitrous acid, of each equal parts; I preferred this mix-

ture of acid, because it has been found by Mr. McNab, in Hudson's Bay, to be capable of producing much greater cold, when the temperature of the materials at mixing is very low, than the nitrous acid alone.

The glass tube of a mercurial thermometer, with its bulb half filled with mercury was provided, this occurring to me as a convenient method of

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of ascertaining when the mercury was congealed; for if, after being subjected to the cold of a frigorific mixture, the thermometer glass should be taken out and inverted, and the mercury found to remain compleatly suspended in that half of the bulb now uppermost, no doubt can remain of the success of the experiment. An hydrometer, with its lower bulb half an inch in diameter, and three-4ths full of mercury was likewise provided.

In all experiments of this kind, I remove each vessel, when the liquor it contains is sufficiently cooled, out of the mixture in which it is immersed, immediately previous to adding the snow or salts, with intention to generate a still further increase of cold; and likewise prefer adding the snow or powdered salts to the liquor, instead of pouring the liquor upon these; it is necessary also to stir about the snow or salts, whilst cooling in a frigorific mixture, otherwise it will freeze into a hard mass, and frustrate the experiment.

A half pint glass tumbler, containing two ounces and a half of the above-mentioned diluted mixture of acids and snow, until the liquor it contained was cooled to 30° , was removed out of the mixture, and placed upon a table; snow, likewise, previously cooled in a frigorific mixture to 15° , was added by degrees to the liquor in the tumbler, and the mixture kept stirring until a mercurial thermometer sunk to 60° , where it remained stationary; the hydrometer was then immersed in the mixture (the thermometer glass having been broken in the course of the experiment) and stirred about in it for a short time, and on taking out and gently shaking it, I perceived the mercury had already acquired the consistence of an amalgam, and after immersing it again for a few minutes, and then taking out and inverting it, I was gratified for the first time, with the sight of mercury in a state of perfect congelation. I applied my hand to the inverted glass bulb, this soon loosened the solid mercury, which, on shaking the hydrometer, was diff-

tinctly heard to knock with force against the glass; it was then immersed a second time, and when taken out was found adhering to the glass as before. I now inverted the glass again, and kept it in that situation until the whole of the mercury melted, and dropped down globule after globule into the stem of the hydrometer, in about three or four minutes. In a succeeding experiment this circumstance was attended to, and the frozen mercury, weighing seven scruples, was not entirely melted under seven minutes, the temperature of the air 3° .

On December 30th, three ounces of a mixture composed of strong fuming nitrous acid two parts, and strong vitriolic acid and water, each one part, were cooled in a half pint tumbler immersed in a frigorific mixture, till the temperature of the diluted mixture of acids was reduced to 30° . The tumbler was then removed out of the mixture, and vitriolated natron, (Glauber's salt) in a very fine powder, previously cooled to 14° , by a frigorific mixture, added by degrees to the liquor in the tumbler, stirring it together until the mercury in the thermometer sunk to 54° . The hydrometer used in the former experiment, with its lower bulb three-4ths full of mercury, was now immersed and stirred about in the mixture for a few minutes, when on taking it out, and inverting it, I had the satisfaction to find the same proof of the mercury being frozen, as on the former instance. Nearly four ounces of the powdered salt was added, but I believe some was added after the greatest effect was produced. I had no nitrated ammonia by me, otherwise I should have used it instead of vitriolated natron alone, a mixture of these two salts in powder, in the proportion of seven parts of the former, to eight of the latter. The temperature of the room in which these experiments were made, was 30° each time, and the mercury taken from a jar, containing several pounds.

By an experiment made on January 10th, I found that mercury may be con-

congealed tolerably hard, by adding fresh fallen snow, at the temperature of 32° to strong fuming nitrous acid, previously cooled to between 25° and 30° , which may be very easily and quickly effected by immersing the vessel, containing the acid, in a mixture of snow and nitrous acid.

On January the 12th, I repeated the experiment at the Anatomy School, in Christ's Church.

For this purpose were provided a spirit thermometer, graduated very low, and a mercurial thermometer graduated to 76° ; two thermometer glasses, with bulbs very near, if not quite an inch in diameter each, one filled with mercury nearly to the orifice of the tube, which was left open, the other with its bulb half filled; and an hydrometer with its lower bulb (considerably less than either of the others) likewise half filled with mercury; the temperature of the room at this time 28° . A pan, containing nine ounces of the mixture of acids, prepared as in the first experiment, was placed in a larger pan, containing nitrous acid, and this in a frigorific mixture of nitrous acid and snow, contained in another pan much larger. When the nitrous acid in the second pan was cooled by this mixture to 18° , and the mixed acids in the smallest pan nearly as much, snow at somewhat between 20° and 25° , the temperature of the open air at the time, was added to the nitrous acid in the second pan, until the spirit thermometer sunk to near 45° ; then the thermometer, with its bulb half filled, was immersed a sufficient time, and when taken out, the mercury in it was found congealed, and adhering to the glass. The pan containing the mixed acids, and which had been removed whilst the snow was added to make the second mixture, was now replaced in it, in order to be cooled; and when the mixture of acids was reduced to the temperature of 34° , snow previously cooled to 18° was added, keeping the mixture stirred until the mercurial thermometer sunk to 60° ; its temperature by the spirit

thermometer was then found to be 51° . The three glasses containing the mercury to be frozen, were now immersed in this mixture, and having been moved about in it for a considerable time, during which the spirit thermometer rose scarcely one degree, were severally taken out and examined.

As the examination of the frozen mercury was more immediately under the inspection of Dr. Thomson, I shall transcribe here that gentleman's account of the phenomena.

"When the freezing mixture was supposed to have produced its effects, the bulb which was completely filled, was taken out, and broken on a flat stone by a moderate stroke or two with an iron hammer. This bulb was eleven or twelve lines in diameter.

The solid mercury was separated into several sharp and brilliant fragments, some of which bore handling for a short time before they returned to a fluid form. One mass, larger than the rest, consisting of nearly one-third of the whole ball, afforded the beautiful appearance of flat plates, converging towards a centre. Each of these plates was about a line in breadth, at the external surface of the ball, becoming narrower as it shot inwards. These facets lay in very different planes, as is common in the fracture of any crystallized ball, whether of a brittle metal, or of the earths, as in balls of calcareous stalactite.—The solid brittle mercury in the present instance bore a very exact resemblance, both in color and plated structure, to sulphurated antimony, and especially to the radiated specimens from Auvergne, before they are at all tarnished.

Instead of a solid center to this ball, it seemed as if there had been a central cavity, of about two lines in diameter, a considerable portion of which was evident in the fragment just described, at that part to which the radii converged. It is indeed possible, that this may have been merely the receptacle of some part of the mercury remaining fluid at the center.

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The hollow within was shining, but its edges were neither soft nor mouldering: on the contrary, they were sharp and well designed: nor was the brilliancy of the radii attributable to any exudation of mercury as from an amalgam.

In two smaller bulbs, which were only half filled, the mercury preserved its usual lustre on the surface in contact with the glass, as well as on that surface which it had acquired in becoming solid. The latter was occupied by a conical depression, the gradations of which were marked by concentric lines. One of these hemispheres was struck with a hammer, as in the former instance, but was rather flattened and crushed than broken. The other, on being divided with a sharp chissel, shewed a metallic splendour on its cut surface, but not equaling the polish of a globule of fluid mercury.

Thirteen ounces of snow in the whole were found to have been added to the mixed acids; but some was added to lower its temperature after the glasses containing the mercury were taken out, and the spirit thermometer had risen a few degrees.

This was a day remarkably favourable for such an experiment; my thermometer, exposed to the open air, stood at three quarters past eight in the morning at $+6^{\circ}$, which is a very extraordinary degree of cold here; but this experiment was not begun till noon.

On Jan. 14. I froze mercury at the Anatomy School again.

Four ounces now of the mixture of acids, prepared as in the first experiment, were cooled in a tumbler to 20° , which required somewhat more

than an equal weight of snow, cooled nearly to the same temperature, to produce the greatest effect. This was somewhat less than in the last experiment, the spirit thermometer sinking no lower than 46° , owing chiefly to the weather having become much warmer; the temperature of the open air being now $+36^{\circ}$. The mercurial thermometer immersed in this mixture sunk to 55° , where it became stationary; then two thermometer glasses, one half filled with mercury, and the other filled to a considerable height up the tube, after being immersed some time, were examined. Upon breaking the shell of glass from the former of these, the mercury was found in a perfectly solid state; but its upper surface, which was highly polished, and of the colour of liquid mercury, instead of being only slightly depressed, as had been seen in every other instance, now formed a perfectly inverted hollow cone. This great depression, as well as the concentric circles mentioned in a former instance, I suppose, might be owing to a rotatory motion accidentally given to it whilst congealing. The solid mercury was beaten out, but having been suffered to lie some time on the table for inspection, very quickly melted into liquid globules. The flexibility of solid mercury was clearly to be observed in this beautiful specimen, for the external surface, particularly the upper thin rim of the concave part, was evidently bent by the first gentle stroke of the hammer. The globe of mercury in the other glass, which was very small, exhibited nearly the same phenomena, as in the instances before mentioned.

ACCOUNT OF THE SHANGALLA, A NATION BORDERING ON ABYSSINIA, DESCRIBED BY MR. BRUCE, IN HIS TRAVELS TO DISCOVER THE SOURCE OF THE NILE.

(Continued from Page 433 of Vol. IV.)

NO one can doubt, but that the constant habit of seeing people of all ages naked at all times, in the ordinary transactions and necessities of life, must greatly check unchaste propensities. But there are still further reasons

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Reasons why, in the nature of things, an extraordinary vehemence of passion should not fall to be a distinguishing characteristic among the Shangalla. Fahrenheit's thermometer rises there beyond 100°. A violent relaxation, from profuse perspiration, must greatly debilitate the savage. In Arabia and Turkey, where the whole business of man's life is the devoting himself to domestic pleasure, men remain constantly in a sedentary life, eat heartily, avoiding every manner of exercise, or expence of animal spirits by sweats. Their countries too are colder than that of the Shangalla, who, living sparingly under a burning sun, and obliged to procure food by laborious hunting, of consequence deprive themselves of that quantity of animal spirits necessary to lead them to any extreme of voluptuousness. And that this is the case is seen in the constitution of the Shangalla women, even though they are without fatigue.

The Shangalla have no bread: No grain or pulse will grow in the country. Some of the Arabs, settled at Ras el Feel, have attempted to make bread of the seed of the Guinea grass; but it is very tasteless and bad, of the colour of cow dung, and quickly producing worms.

They are all archers from their infancy. Their bows are all made of wild fennel, thicker than the common proportion, and about seven feet long, and very elastic. The children use the same bow in their infancy that they do when grown up; and are, by reason of its length, for the first years, obliged to hold it parallel, instead of perpendicular to the horizon. Their arrows are full a yard and a half long, with large heads of very bad iron rudely shaped. They are, indeed, the only savages I ever knew that take no pains in the make or ornament of this weapon. A branch of a palm, stripped from the tree and made straight, becomes an arrow; and none of them have wings to them. They have this remarkable custom, which is a religious

one, that they fix upon their bows a ring or thong, of the skin of every beast slain by it, while it is yet raw, from the lizard and serpent up to the elephant. This gradually stiffens the bow, till being all covered over, it can be no longer bent even by its master. That bow is then hung upon a tree, and a new one is made in its place, till the same circumstance again happens; and one of these bows, that which its master liked best, is buried with him, in hopes of its rising again materially with his body; when he shall be endowed with a greater degree of strength, without fear of death, or being subjected to pain, with a capacity to enjoy in excess every human pleasure. There is nothing, however, spiritual in this resurrection, nor what concerns the soul, but it is wholly corporeal and material; although some writers have plumed themselves upon their fancied discovery of what they call the savages' belief of the immortality of the soul.

Before I take leave of this subject, I must again explain, from what I have already said, a difficult passage in classical history. Herodotus says, that, in the country we have been just now describing, there was a nation called Macrobia, which was certainly not the real name of the Shangalla, but one the Greeks had given them, from a supposed circumstance of their being remarkable long livers, as that name imports. These were the western Shangalla, situated below Guba and Nuba, the gold country, on both sides of the Nile north of Fazuelo.

If the situation of these Macrobia in Ptolemy, did not put it past dispute that they were Shangalla, we should hesitate much at the characteristic of the nation; that they were long livers; none of these nations are so; I scarcely remember an example fairly vouched of a man past sixty. But there is one circumstance that I think might have fairly led Herodotus into this mistake; some of the Shangalla kill their sick, weak,

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and aged people; there are others that honour old age, and protect it. The Macrobbi, I suppose, were of this last kind, who certainly, therefore, had many old men, more than the others. I shall now just mention one other observation tending to illustrate a passage of ancient history.

Hanno, in his Periplus, remarks, that, while sailing along the coast of Africa, close by the shore, and probably near the low country called Kolla, inhabited by the kind of people we have been just describing, he found an universal silence to prevail the whole day, without any appearance of man or beast; on the contrary, at night, he saw a number of fires, and heard the sound of music and dancing; this has been laughed at as a fairy tale by people who affect to treat Hanno's fragment as spurious. For my own part, I will not enter into the controversy.

A very great genius, (in some matters, perhaps, the greatest that ever wrote, and in every thing that he writes highly respectable) M. de Montesquieu, is perfectly satisfied that this Periplus of Hanno is genuine; and it is a great pleasure again to endeavour to obviate any doubt concerning the authenticity of the work in this second passage, as I have before done in another.

In countries, such as those that we have been now describing, and such as Hanno was then sailing by, when he made the remark, there is no twilight. The stars, in their full brightness, are in possession of the whole heavens, when in an instant the sun appears without a harbinger, and they all disappear together. We shall say, at sun rising the thermometer is from 48° to 68° ; at three o'clock in the afternoon it is from 100° to 115° . An universal relaxation, a kind of irresistible lan-

guor and aversion to all action, takes possession of both man and beast; the appetite fails, and sleep and quiet are the only things the mind is capable of desiring, or the body of enduring. Cattle, birds, and beasts, all flock to the shade, and to the neighbourhood of running streams, or deep stagnant pools, and there, avoiding the effects of the scorching sun, pant in quiet and inaction. From the same motive, the wild beast stirs not from his cave; and for this, too, he has an additional reason, because the cattle he depends upon for his prey, do not stroll abroad to feed; they are asleep and in safety, for with them are their dogs and their shepherds.

But no sooner does the sun set, than a cold night instantly succeeds a burning day; the appetite immediately returns; the cattle spread themselves abroad to feed, and pass quickly out of the shepherd's sight into the reach of a multitude of beasts, seeking for their prey. Fires, the only remedy, are every where lighted by the shepherds, to keep these at a respectful distance, and dancing and singing at once exhilarate the mind, and contribute by alarming the beasts of prey, to keep their flocks in safety, and prevent the bad effects of severe cold. This was the cause of the observation Hanno made in sailing along the coast, and it was true when he made it; just the same may be observed still, and will be, so long as the climate and inhabitants are the same.

I have been more particular in the history of this extraordinary nation, because I had, by mere accident, an opportunity of informing myself fully, and with certainty concerning it; and, as it is very improbable that such an opportunity will occur again to any European, I hope it will not be ungratefully received.

ACCOUNT OF THE GERMAN THEATRE.

BY HENRY MACKENZIE, ESQ. F. R. S. EDINBURGH.

NO country perhaps affords a more interesting literary speculation than *Germany*. For researches in science and philosophy, for laborious investigations into the principles of public polity and the law, she had long been conspicuous; but till very lately she made scarce any pretension to fame in the other departments of literature, which usually precede the more abstract and laborious pursuits. Even in history, her writers were few, but of poetry and *Belles Lettres*, scarce a trace was to be found, and of the very little of either, which the authors of that country produced, the language in which they conveyed it was a foreign one. But of late *Germany* begins to exert herself in the more elegant walks of literature, with an uncommon degree of ardour; and in her literary aspect she presents herself to our observation in a singular point of view, that of a country arrived at maturity, along with the neighbouring nations, in the arts and sciences, in the pleasures and refinements of manners and society, and yet only in its infancy with regard to writings of taste and imagination. These, however, from this very circumstance, she pursues with an enthusiasm, which no other situation could perhaps have produced; the enthusiasm which novelty inspires, and which the severity incident to a more cultivated and critical state of literature does not restrain.

Since the time of Haller, (who, by an extraordinary combination of talents, united the deepest abstraction of science with the ease and pleasantry of the lightest poetry) and of Gellert, the *La Fontaine* of *Germany*, that country has thrown into the circle of literature a greater variety of productions in Poetry and *Belles Lettres*, than any other nation of Europe.

While other countries have been applying themselves chiefly to moral, physical, and geographical enquiries, *Germany*, remounting as it were to the sources of ancient inspiration, has given to the world works of that creative fort, which are seldom produced in those later times, when fancy and imagination give place to the sober certainties of science and philosophy. Among those works of imagination, it is sufficient to mention several epic poems, one of which at least, the *Messiah*, of Klopstock, is of the most acknowledged and universal reputation.

The language of *Germany*, however, has not yet attained, as those who know it inform us, that perfection and regularity necessary to stamp the highest value on the productions composed in it. Its currency, for the same reason, is far from extensive, and therefore the original German works are scarce read at all beyond the circle of the empire.

French and English translators, particularly the former, have made up to strangers the loss which this would otherwise have occasioned.

As the drama of every country marks more strongly than any other of its productions, the features, both of its genius and of its manners, I thought I should afford a not unacceptationable piece of information, by giving an account of those publications, accompanied, as it naturally must be, with some remarks on dramatic composition in general, arising from the particular observations excited by the works in question. Neither that account, nor those remarks, will pretend to completeness or regularity. Written amidst a variety of other occupations, with but little leisure either of time or of mind, I only mean them as presenting to the members of this society a sketch of something that merits

merits the further enquiry of the industrious, and which, as an amusement, will well repay the time which the unemployed may be induced to bestow on it. It appears by a preliminary discourse prefixed to Mr. Friedel's translation, somewhat contradicted, but without much effect, by the preface of Mr. Junker, that it is only at a very late period that the theatre of Germany has arrived at any degree of perfection. In the year 1727, Gottsched, Professor of Philosophy, in the University of Leipzig, undertook a reformation of the German stage, till that time sunk in a state of barbarism. But he gave only translations of French plays, with one or two miserable originals of his own, long since forgotten. It was not till between the years 1740 and 1750, that any performance of merit appeared, or that actors of eminence (with very few exceptions) seem to have existed to perform them. About that period the celebrated Eckhof, the Roscius of Germany, began his theatrical career, in which he continued to delight his countrymen till his death, which happened in 1778, a year remarkable in the annals of the stage, since it deprived the world of three of its greatest actors, Le Kain, Garrick, and Eckhof.

Besides the low state of polite literature in Germany before that period, of which I have taken notice above, the small extent of each individual state must necessarily have obstructed the progress of theatrical exhibition. The establishment of a good theatre is too expensive for the limited revenues of the smaller potentates, among whom great part of Germany is divided. At Vienna, Berlin, and Dresden, there were theatres supported at very considerable expence; but these, I believe, were destined for the opera. This would indeed naturally be the case, where the entertainment was meant for the Court. Dramas that rouse passions, that shake the soul, afford pleasure only to the body of the people; the great and the fashionable relish much more those species of entertainment

which gratify the finer senses, or amuse the lighter fancy of the indolent and the voluptuous. Music and dancing, or musical dramas which include both, are always their favourite amusements.

The progress of the German stage must have also been considerably impeded by the circumstance of the language being so different in different parts of the empire; as of course to make French the common language of the better sort of people.

In the year 1747, Lessing, whom the Germans regard as the chief of their dramatic authors, produced his first comedy at Leipzig, and from this time downwards, a variety of authors of genius contributed to form and to establish the theatrical taste of Germany. Their attempts, however, seem still to have been obstructed by the particular situation of the country.

No capital, like Paris and London, united or rewarded their efforts. The King of Prussia, from whom one would have looked for literary patronage, had always a prepossession for French, and a contempt for German literature. We find him therefore bestowing high honours on Le Kain, who acted occasionally on a French theatre, established at Berlin, but never interesting himself about the establishment of a German stage. It is pretty remarkable that the Muses of the empire found protection and support chiefly from persons engaged in commerce, the first theatres of any eminence being built by merchants of Leipzig and Hamburg. After the conclusion of the last war, however, the theatre appears to have received considerable encouragement at Vienna, Berlin, Manheim, and Dresden.

About this period, the taste for sentimental and pathetic writing began to be wonderfully prevalent in Germany. The works of Sterne, and several other English authors of the same class, were read with the greatest avidity. I remember to have been told of a club or society instituted at some town in Germany, whose name was taken from the *snuff-box*, which forms a striking incident in the celebrated story

story of the monk in the *Sentimental Journey*. The poems of Wieland, Gesner, Weisse, &c. are full of the most refined sentiment and sensibility; and the celebrated *Sorrows of Werter*, of Goethe, carries those qualities to that enthusiastic height, which has so much captivated the young and the romantic of every country it has reached.

This prevalence of highly refined sentiment seems commonly the attendant of newly introduced literature, when letters are the property of a few secluded men, and have not yet allied themselves to the employments or the feelings of society. The same thing took place at the revival of letters in Europe after the long night of the middle ages. The Platonic love of the ancient romance, and of the poetical dialogue of the *Provincials*, was the produce of the same high-wrought and metaphysical sentiment, which is the natural result of fancy and feeling, untutored by a knowledge of the world, or the intercourse of ordinary life.

We are not therefore to wonder, if, amidst what we might be apt to term refinement in point of sentiment and expression, we should find in those German dramas, a disregard for the regularities and the decorum of the stage, which is considered as marking a very rude state of the dramatic art. Such disregard, in effect, some of those dramas exhibit in a remarkable degree. The scene is sullied with murder, and disfigured with madness, as often as that of the ancient English tragedy. And in one of the plays of this collection, in point of tenderness and passion a performance of very high merit, Agnes Bernau, the heroine of the piece, is executed on the stage in a manner as repugnant to the delicacy or dignity of theatrical situation as can be well imagined, to wit, by being drowned; and one of the executioners is exhibited pushing her down into the water, when she attempts to save herself.

This disregard of rule, and this

licence of the scene, are attended with many unfavourable, and yet perhaps with some fortunate effects. The rules of sound and liberal criticism certainly produce in the hands of great ability and genius, the most exquisite and delightful performances. Yet there is a certain reach of genius, which they may restrain from exertions that might sometimes accomplish very laudable productions. There are moments of peculiar warmth of imagination, and felicity of language, which, in the course of a work where fancy is indulged beyond the bounds of rigid critical rule, a writer may experience above the level of his ordinary powers. Without an attention to the critical regulations of the drama, Voltaire would not have written such admirable tragedies: but, from the restraint which the necessity of that attention imposes on the theatre of France, that theatre is loaded with those thousand insipid plays which every year at Paris are exhibited and forgotten. The monotony of the modern French drama may fairly enough be imputed to that nicety and fastidiousness of a French audience, which will not suffer any irregularity, though sanctioned by nature, or dignified by genius. I mean not by this to plead for any indulgence to a licence their stage has lately assumed in point of moral *bienfiance*, which is equally unfavourable to excellence of composition and to decency of manners. The same remark might be extended to our stage, were it not now sunk to such a state of degradation as hardly to be worthy of notice.

The collection of the German theatre, by Junker, contains, besides *Sara Sampson*, which is common to both publications, three tragedies, six comedies, a drama, and a pastoral. That of Friedel consists of twelve volumes, containing twenty-seven dramatic pieces, of which thirteen are tragedies, nine are called comedies, and five dramas, a species of performance, for which we have

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got in English a very definite term. It holds a sort of middle place between tragedy and comedy, borrowing from the first its passions and sentiments, from the last the rank of its persons, and the fortunate nature of its conclusion. This sort of drama was for some time extremely popular in France, and was thence adopted into the theatres of England and Germany, but particularly into the latter, where it seems to have been peculiarly adapted to that turn for high-wrought sensibility, which I have before mentioned as having become a sort of national taste in that country. Indeed, most of the comedies of these volumes might be classed under this denomination.

There are three historical plays, one of which, of the highest popularity in Germany, is *Goetz de Berliching*, founded on the history, or rather indeed detailing the history of a chief of that name, in the war of the peasants in the time of the Emperor Maximilian. This play goes beyond the utmost licence of our Shakespeare, in its change of scene and multiplicity of incident. Yet this was written as late as the year 1773.

The principal authors of these collections are Lessing, Goethe, and Brandes. The two first are sufficiently known; the last, Brandes, is the director of a company of German comedians; and if we may judge from his performances in this collection, one of the ablest of the German dramatists, though he seems not to have attained in his own country so much consideration as I should be disposed to allow him.

In Junker's collection is a comedy of Gellert's, which gives a very favourable idea of his talents for comic character and dialogue, called *The Lottery Ticket*.

Weisse, a name of high dramatic reputation in his own country, is the author of two tragedies in these volumes, one of which, *Romeo and Juliet*, is an extremely popular performance in Germany. It is an imitation of

Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, with the plot much compressed and connected; but in the swell of its language, and the extravagance of its allusions, it goes rather beyond the original. *Juliet*, however, is a better and more interesting female character than is generally found in this collection.

Most of the pieces of which they consist are plays of situation rather than of character. In the comedies, it is not the *miser*, the *misanthrope*, the *hypocrite*, that is represented, but a father offended by the *misalliance* of his child, a husband hurt by the ridiculous extravagance of his wife. The tragedies, in like manner, do not exhibit a personification of ambition, revenge, or jealousy, but a son outraged by his father, a baron offended by his prince, a prince tyrannized over by his love. I am inclined to think the characteristic drama the most pleasing, and generally the most excellent. The character of the leading person introduced, marks the events and the situations in which it is placed, in such a way as strongly to impress the imagination and the memory of the reader, and colours as it were, that particular province of mind which the author means to delineate, with a precision and a force which is not found in scenes where the situation only acts on the general feelings of our nature. This kind of drama, however, is not so commonly found in later periods of society, both because those later periods do not so frequently produce peculiar and strongly distinguished characters, as because such characters have been already seized by the earliest dramatic writers, who only leave to their successors the power of tracing them through their subdivisions and modes of painting the nicer shades, by which the same great features of the human mind are discriminated in different persons. I think it may be remarked as a defect in the collections before us, that the dramas do not always place those features in a strong

strong and steady light. The characters are not always perfectly or uniformly supported, and the persons are sometimes exhibited acting from motives not quite consistent with the general plan of their character, nor appearing a sufficient force to produce their actions. This may perhaps be imputed to that extreme refinement of feeling, which I have before remarked to be particularly predominant in these pieces. Objects seen through the medium (a medium too rather fluctuating and uncertain) in which the persons of the drama are placed, strike them with a force which the reader does not always allow, and become motives to a conduct of which he does

not always perceive the necessity or the use. Characters like those of Shakespeare, which act from the native feelings of the soul, are immediately acknowledged by the corresponding feelings of the audience. But in the metaphysical refinement of sentiment, the same thing does not take place. There the feelings are created, not the characters, and we have no leading radical idea to which we can refer them, to which we can discover that intimated relation which it is the great excellence of the poet to preserve, and the great pleasure of the reader or spectator to have.

[To be continued.]

ON THE PRE-EMINENCE GIVEN TO THE AMUSING IN PREFERENCE TO THE USEFUL ARTS.

NOTHING is apparently more absurd, than to have ennobled the amusing arts, to the exclusion of those which are absolutely necessary for life; and to have distinguished in the same art the useful from the agreeable, in order to honor the one in preference to the other, and yet nothing is more reasonable than these distinctions, if we examine them narrowly.

Men in a state of society, after providing for their wants, have turned their attention towards their pleasures, and pleasure when once enjoyed, has also become an indispensable want. Enjoyments form the value of life, and men have found in the amusing arts a method of multiplying them. They have then considered, by comparing them with the necessary arts, what encouragement each required, and rewards have been proposed suited to the faculties and inclinations of those who exercised them. The first object of rewards is, to encourage labor, but labor which requires only common talents, such as strength of body, dexterity of hand, and an industry

easily acquired by custom and exercise, may be readily excited by the attractions of a good salary. Robust, laborious, active, and ingenious men, may be found every where, who will be satisfied to live comfortably by their labor, and who will labor in order to live.

No other reward, therefore, could be proposed to promote these arts, even the most useful and necessary, than an easy and comfortable life, and the natural qualities which they require, are not susceptible of greater ambition. The mind of an artist and that of a laborer are not to be fed with chimeras, and an ideal existence would interest them very little.

But to promote these arts, the success of which depends on the thoughts, genius, and the faculties of the soul, particularly the imagination, the emulation of interest was not only necessary, but also that of vanity. It was requisite to propose rewards analogous to each genius, and worthy of encouraging them, flattering esteem to some, glory to others, and to all distinctions proportioned

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THE KANGAROO.

Drawn from the Animal in the Possession of Mr. Stockdale, Piccadilly.
Published as the Act directs, 1822, by C. F. Kenton, & Co. London.



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portioned to the means and faculties which they demanded.

Thus was established in general opinion, the pre-eminence of the liberal over the mechanical arts, without regard to utility, or rather, in supposing them useful in a different manner, some for supplying the wants of life, and others for pleasure.

This distinction has been so nice, that in the same art, what requires an uncommon degree of intelligence and genius, has been ranked with the liberal arts, whilst that which requires only faculties common to the multitude, has been left among the number of the mechanical arts. Such for example, is the difference between the architect and the mason, the statuary and the founder, &c. Sometimes even the speculative and inventive part of a mechanical art has been separated, in order to raise it to the rank of the sciences, whilst the manual part has remained among the multitude of obscure arts. Thus agriculture, navigation, optics, and statics, are connected at one extremity with the most sublime sciences,

and at the other, with arts which have not yet been ennobled.

The liberal arts are confined to the following: eloquence, poetry, music, painting, sculpture, architecture, and engraving, considered as a part of design.

It is very singular, that the arts held in the highest honor, and those indeed which deserve to be so, on account of the faculties and talents which they require, and those for which uncommon intelligence, imagination, and genius, as well as a delicacy of organs, which few men possess, seem to be necessary, are almost all arts invented to gratify luxury, which society might be happy without, and which have introduced into it only whimsical pleasures, that depend upon custom and opinion, and which are very foreign to the natural state of man. But what appears to us a caprice and error of nature is, however, agreeable to its designs; for what is really useful to man, ought to be easy to all; and what is possible only for the fewer number, ought to be of no use to the greater.

ACCOUNT OF THE KANGOROO.

WITH A PRINT OF THE SAME.

THE Kangaroo is a native of New South Wales; it is formed much like a *Jerboa*, but the latter is but little larger than a common rat; the Kangaroos are in general as large as a sheep.

These Kangaroos were frequently seen by our new settlers at Port Jackson, but were so shy that it was very difficult to shoot them. With respect to these animals, it is rather an extraordinary circumstance, that, notwithstanding their great shyness, and notwithstanding they are daily shot at, more of them are seen near the camp than in any part of the country. The Kangaroo, though it resembles the *Jerboa* in the pecu-

liarity of using only the hinder legs in progression, does not belong to that genus. The pouch of the female, in which the young are nursed, is thought to connect it rather with the opossum tribe. This extraordinary formation, hitherto esteemed peculiar to that one genus, seems however, in New Holland not to be sufficiently characteristic; it has been found both in the rat and squirrel kind. The largest Kangaroo which has yet been shot weighed about one hundred and forty pounds. But it has been discovered that there are two kinds, one of which seldom exceeds sixty pounds in weight, these live chiefly on the high grounds;

grounds; their hair is of a reddish cast, and the head is shorter than in the larger sort. Young Kangaroos which have been taken, have in a few days grown very tame, but none have lived more than two or three weeks. Yet it is still possible that when their proper food shall be known, they may be domesticated.

Near some water, in this journey, was found the dung of an animal that fed on grass, which, it is supposed could not have been less than a horse. A Kangaroo so much above the usual size would have been an extraordinary phenomenon, though no larger animal has yet been seen, and the limits of growth in that species are not ascertained. The tail of the Kangaroo, which is very large, is found to be used as a weapon of defence, and has given such severe blows to dogs as to oblige them to desist from pursuit. Its flesh is coarse

and lean, nor would it probably be used for food, where there was not a scarcity of fresh provisions. The disproportion between the upper and the lower parts of this animal, is greater than has been shewn in any former delineations of it, but is well expressed in the plate inserted here.

The dimensions of a stuffed Kangaroo, in the possession of Mr. Nepean, are these :

	ft.	in.
Length from the point of the nose to the end of the tail	6	1
Length of the tail	2	1
head	0	8
fore legs	1	0
hinder legs	2	8
Circumference of the fore part by the legs	1	1
lower parts	3	2
The middle toe of the hind feet is remarkably long, strong and sharp.		

THEATRICAL BIOGRAPHY.

MRS. SIDDONS.

ESTABLISHED habits are with difficulty removed. When the human mind once usurps the possession of a certain train of ideas, it generally retains its bias, and they continue to flow on, in the channel of prejudice, with little interruption from the feeble efforts of liberality and candour. Mankind in general deprecate the toil of reasoning; the portion of those who think for themselves is comparatively very small. The multitude are content to adopt without discussion, and consequently to approve without judgment, and censure without reason.

There is a certain degree of ridicule attached to the profession of a Player, that the mind seems incapable of resisting; and which, all the powers even of Garrick, Mrs Jordan, or Mrs. Siddons, cannot altogether remove. In darker ages they have been considered as the foes of religion, and condemned by the

anathemas of the church; the liberality of the present has removed every obstacle of this sort, and even honoured some of its professors with marks of distinction, the more honourable as they are more rare.

The mother of Mrs. Siddons was the daughter of a Mr. Ward, the manager of an itinerant company of players in Wales, and the adjacent English counties, who by success and economy made a small fortune. The present Earl of Coventry, then a youth, is said to have been so much struck with her charms, that he sent her letters, with an offer of marriage, which she gave to her father, and the father to the late Earl, by which means it was prevented.

So great it seems was Mr. Ward's contempt for his profession, that he laid his daughter under the strongest injunction of never marrying a man on the stage; but weak are parental counsels in opposition to the power

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er of the *fecundating* little god.—The first sight of Mr. Roger Kemble, who travelled with the company in the character of hair-dresser, so wrought upon the susceptible heart of Miss Ward, that before it was known they loved, they were secretly married. Papa was outrageous, and it only remained for Mr. and Mrs. Kemble to enter a strolling company in Cheshire and Lancashire.—Here the present Mrs. Siddons was born. Parents sometimes relent—The pride of the mimic monarch gave way to the feelings of nature. After a few years peregrination, they were invited back by Mr. Ward, who resigned the theatric sceptre to Mr. Kemble, and died soon after.

When Miss Sarah Kemble, (now Mrs. Siddons) first attempted the stage, her juvenile efforts, particularly as a singer, were regarded with some hopes of success; but the very early abandoned that line, and attended in particular to tragedy.

The vicissitudes of all human affairs are well represented in theatrical life.—Here we see monarchs suddenly dethroned, and succeeded by the most menial offices. Miss Kemble being refused the indulgence of her passion for Mr. Siddons, actually resigned her situation, and hired herself as lady's maid to Mrs. Greathead, of Guy's Cliffe, in Warwickshire, at 10*l.* per ann.

At the end of a twelvemonth, however, those two powerful passions—love and ambition—would be restrained no longer. Mr. Siddons eloped with her to Chamberlain, and joined Crump's company, where he married her.

This was a new established company, and rather unsuccessful: and such was the poverty of their wardrobe, that Mrs. Siddons was obliged, during the performance of the Irish Widow, to borrow a coat of a gentleman in the boxes, to equip herself for the widow Brady, which she obtained on condition that she gave him her petticoat to put over his shoulders, and admitted him to stand behind the scenes.

Mrs. Siddons's talents were even at this period, allowed to surpass mediocrity, and her application was incessant. From hence she was engaged, with her husband, by the late Mr. Younger, to perform at Liverpool, Birmingham, &c. where, after remaining a few years, encreasing both her profits and reputation, she was invited to Drury-lane, where she performed the parts of Mrs. Strickland, and the Queen in Richard III. but being considered only as a second-rate Actress on a London theatre, her stay was very short. Some have imputed this to Garrick's jealousy of all merit but his own; but the supposition does too much violence to common sense, to be admitted for a moment.

From London Mrs. Siddons went to Bath, without much hope, it is presumed, of ever reaching any very pre-eminent station; but extreme parsimony enabled her to support her family on a very small salary. Here, however, she evidently improved, and is said to have been greatly assisted by the instruction of Mr. Prat, who has written so much under the signature of Courtney Melmoth. About the year 1780, she had attained that degree of excellence, that many amateurs travelled to Bath purposely to see her.

In 1781, Mrs. Siddons had the honour of numbering among her patrons, the Duchess of Devonshire, and Mr. Whaley the poet, whose admiration of her abilities obtained her an engagement at Drury-lane Theatre, at 10*l.* per week; upon which she left Bath, after speaking a very pretty address, written by herself, and in which she produced her three children, as the three reasons for her quitting such generous patrons.

Her second appearance at Drury-lane was on the 10th of October, 1782, in the character of Isabella. This is her greatest character, and she certainly astonished the house, by a display of powers not witnessed since the days of Garrick.

Her fame was instantly sounded through

through the metropolis with superlative eulogium. The theatre overflowed every night she appeared, and Melpomene, who had been pushed behind the curtain by the satire of Sheridan's Critic, resumed her former consequence and station. It became fashionable for all the ladies to weep, and sometimes to faint. The sums drawn into the treasury exceeded the receipts of any former season, and the managers, by way of return, gave her an extra benefit, and doubled her salary.

Anxious that her relations might participate in her good fortune, Mrs. Siddons brought her sister, Miss F. Kemble, to London, and announced her for Alicia, to her own Jane Shore. It is impossible to describe the eagerness with which crowds flocked to see this performance. Judging of Miss Kemble by the talents of her sister, the public expected another phenomenon, and the avenues to the theatre were gorged with people by three o'clock. The screams of women, and the general confusion which ensued when the doors opened, occasioned a very unpleasant scene. Many were lamed, many had their pockets picked, and thousands were excluded the house. But they had no reason to regret this disappointment, as the new Alicia was even below mediocrity. Miss Kemble remained but a few seasons on the stage, when she married Mr. Twiss, a gentleman of fortune, and some literary ability, with whom she retired.

The managers of Drury-lane, willing to compliment and reward a woman whose powers proved profitable as the philosopher's stone, gave Mrs. Siddons a benefit before Christmas. Venice Preserved was selected for the play; and a more splendid or crowded audience, perhaps, never graced a theatre. Great part of the pit was laid into boxes; the presents given for tickets by the nobility and gentry were immense; and counsellors Pigot and Fielding began a subscription among the gentlemen of the bar, which amounted to an hundred guineas, and

presented it to Mrs Siddons, as a small acknowledgment for the pleasure and instruction her talents had given them: to the former of whom Mrs. Siddons sent the following letter.

" Sir,

" I cannot suppress my desire of wishing you to take upon you the charge of making my most grateful acknowledgements to those gentlemen who have done me the honor of distinguishing my poor abilities in so elegant a manner. Believe me, Sir, my heart is too full, and my pen too feeble, to say what would become me on this most shining circumstance of my whole life. The Gentlemen of the Bar have given me a consequence I never felt before, and I have just reason to fear the effects of the approbation of so eminent a body. But in all things I will do my best to merit that most honorable distinction which my generous patrons have thought proper to shew me, and to prove myself at least not insensible of the value of their countenance and protection. I have the honor to be, with great respect and gratitude, Sir,

" Your most obliged

" And obedient Servant,

" S. SIDDONS."

This was an honor unparalleled in theatrical annals; and indeed the benefit was, perhaps, the most lucrative ever known.

In the summer she performed in Ireland; and her first appearance at Drury-lane in September 1783, was commanded by Their Majesties. Besides an uncommon share of royal countenance, she proved equally attractive this season as the preceding. When the vacation again came round, she again went to Ireland, and from thence to Edinburgh, where she received one thousand pounds for performing ten nights. Her fame having circulated throughout the kingdom, induced many to travel from the most distant parts of it to see her! and such was the effect of her representations, that innumerable presents

of

of different kinds were sent to her from unknown hands: but the most magnificent was a silver urn, which was conveyed to her after she arrived in London, with the words "*A Reward to Merit*," engraven on it.

During all this sunshine of good fortune, however, a storm was brewing in the metropolis. The envy of a competitor may be forgiven:—but what can be said in defence of those who repine at the success of the meritorious, without the excuse of rivalry?—It is a crime of the blackest and most unpardonable nature.

A person employed in a newspaper, whose writings have been justly described to be "every line a libel, and every word a lie," because, perhaps, Mrs. Siddons would not comply with his extortions, or sooth his viperous tongue by the hospitalities of her table, set every engine in motion against her:—He loaded her with opprobrium for not alleviating the distresses of her sister, Mrs. Curtis, a vicious woman, who would not conform to modesty, though offered a genteel annuity on that condition. This lady read lectures in Doctor Graham's Temple of Health, at which decency would have blushed: and notwithstanding she disgraced her relations in many respects, she expected their countenance and support. With a view of forcing them to accede to her demands, from the dread of public indignation, she swallowed poison in Westminster Abbey, which probably had the desired effect, as without proving mortal, it furnished a subject of detraction against her sister.

The paragraphical assassin, in addition to the preceding circumstance, represented Mrs. Siddons as extremely avaricious and uncharitable:—that she had taken a large sum from Mr. Digges, a once eminent, but then distressed comedian, for performing on his benefit night in Dublin:—that she had been guilty of a similar crime to Mr. Brereton: and that her whole conduct was replete with meanness and inhumanity. To irritate his

newspaper brethren, too, he reported that she never read their publications, and equally despised their panegyric or their censure; until by invidious falsehoods, industriously circulated, honest John Bull was very clamorous against his favorite actresses; and many candid people credited these assertions, while they remained uncontroverted.

The house was crowded on the night of her first appearance in October, 1784: but when the curtain drew up and discovered her as Mrs. Beverly in the Gamester, she was saluted with violent hissing, and a cry of *off! off!* intermixed with applause. She attempted to speak, but could not be heard; and Mr. Kemble, indignant at the insults offered her, and conscious of her innocence, led her off the stage.

This excited the vociferations of her friends for her return; and after the tumult had continued for about an hour, her enemies began to relax; and silence being obtained, she came forward;—declared her innocence of what she was accused with:—that the allegations would soon be refuted;—and that her respect for the public made her confident they would protect her from insult. The play was then suffered, with very little opposition, to go on.

During the whole of this riot Mrs. Siddons acted with great composure and fortitude. Her husband, in a spirited manner, proved the charges respecting Digges and Brereton to be false; and some elegant, nervous letters, inserted in a newspaper, signed Laertes, supposed to be written by Mr. Kemble, operated powerfully in her favor. But still the author of the disturbance was spreading his venom, and creating stories of her parsimony; while to his confidants he would whisper with great joy, "You see what a noise I've made!"

The conduct of Mrs. Curtis sufficiently justified Mrs. Siddons's resentment; and Mr. Brereton, by not coming forward in vindication of a woman to whom he was obliged, was generally

generally blamed. The public soon saw the infamy of the whole transaction, and received her with double kindness.

The authors of this malignant conspiracy, however, had nearly accomplished their design. The object of their enmity, disgusted at a public life so liable to be embittered by the mistake of the multitude, or the combinations of the mischievous, was on the eve of retiring into Wales, on a few thousand pounds which she had saved during the two preceding seasons;—nor was it until the exultations of her enemies at such an event, were fully represented to her, that she agreed to brave the storm.

Thus were the admirers of the drama on the brink of losing its brightest ornament by the machinations of a villain and their own credulity. Justice, however, triumphed over malignity:—the temporary cloud of popular delusion suddenly evaporated, and our heroine shone again with increased lustre. Theatrical amateurs, sensible of the injury she had sustained, were eager to shew their contrition, by the most frequent tokens of approbation; and she had more cause of rejoicing than regret at the futile attempts on her fame.

Their Majesties about this time paid her many compliments. She was frequently invited to Buckingham-house, and to Windsor, where she sometimes recited plays, accompanied by Mr. Kemble; and for several years she had to boast of a greater share of royal patronage than any of her predecessors.

A great man was so much charmed with her, that a *carte blanche* was offered and rejected. This Mrs. Siddons told to some friends, which coming to the knowledge of a great lady, any further intimacy was declined; nor has the decree been yet revoked.

At the conclusion of last season, Mrs. Siddons finding her power of attraction on the wane, resolved on retiring from the London stage, until by absence her abilities might regain

their wonted allurements. She did not, however, retire from a theatrical life, but performed in Weymouth, Plymouth, Liverpool, &c. &c. where her profits were considerable, but where her superior talents have left an impression that will for a long time cause the exertions of the itinerant players to be received with coldness; and consequently abridge their small emoluments.

In the beginning of the winter she visited her friend, Mr. Whalley, at Bath, where it was her design to perform for a few nights, but the regulations of that theatre would not permit it: From thence she went to her worthy patrons, Lord and Lady Harcourt, at Neunham, and resided there a few weeks; but on being seized with a very serious indisposition, she returned to her house in London.

By her emoluments arising from the theatre, and the numerous and valuable presents of the nobility and gentry, which she has received in all the principal towns in the three kingdoms, she has realized a handsome fortune. She keeps a carriage, and an elegant house in Gower-street, Bedford-square; and it is said that she has mortgages to a very large amount on Drury-lane Theatre.

She is respected, and admitted on familiar terms by many noble families. From her infancy she has been remarkably prudent; nor has her most inveterate enemy ever suspected her continence. She is blessed with great domestic happiness; and her eldest son, Master H. Siddons, has lately shewn a pretty turn for poetry.

The theatrical talents of Mrs. Siddons have so often been the subject of eulogium, and the public is so well acquainted with them, that it were superfluous to enlarge on her merits here. Nature has bestowed upon her a person, a countenance, a voice, and an understanding competent to depict, in the most vivid colours, the most beautiful ideas of any tragic poet. The flexibility of her features, the expression of her eyes, and the graceful dignity of her deportment,

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cannot possibly be excelled; nor has any performer ever shewn more judgment in delivering the sense of the author, or in dressing characters with propriety. If the smallest fault can be discovered, it is sometimes too much violence in her action.

The tenderness of Belvidera, the pride of Calista, or the grief of Isabella, are most happily pourtrayed by Mrs. Siddons. Her manner of pronouncing "*Remember twelve*," in the first mentioned part, is most beautifully expressed, and never is heard without the warmest bursts of applause. Whatever were the powers of her predecessors, it is scarcely possible that they could be superior, if equal, to her own; and at the present

time she is indisputably the first tragic actress in Britain—perhaps in the world.

Her efforts in comedy have not been successful. The gravity of her countenance, and the dignified sound of her voice, are not adapted to the playfulness of Thalia; and we must regret that she who so amazingly eclipses all her contemporaries in one line, should descend to be eclipsed in another.

Her present indisposition, we hope, will soon be removed; and that she will again gratify an admiring public with her inimitable performances; for without her aid tragedy must inevitably fall into neglect, if not ridicule.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CITY OF CONSTANTINOPLE AND SUBURBS, OF THE SERAGLIO, AND CITY OF SCUTARI.

BY THE COUNT DE FERRIERES SAUVEBŒUF.

MANY writers have given us the history of the Turks, their origin and conquests; let us now take a view of them as possessors of the finest country in the world, and enjoying the fruits of their ancestors' valour; and first let us take a survey of that immense city which they have made their capital.

Constantinople is situated between two seas; the port, one of the finest and most extensive in the universe, is always open to vessels both from the Black Sea and Mediterranean. Superb mosques, surmounted with large domes and lofty minarets, appear above the other buildings, and seem to lose themselves in the clouds. This capital, situated on many hills, is seen at a vast distance. The suburbs of Galatea and Pera, situated on the further side of the port, and the city of Scutari, which rises to view on the opposite shore of Asia, affords the finest prospect to persons approaching Constantinople, who behold this agreeable mixture of thick trees and

painted houses rising together in form of an amphitheatre.

The seraglio, which commands a view of the sea of Marmora, the port and the Bosphorus, is a confused heap of large and small edifices, rising one above another, without order, but intermixed with cypress trees, planted in the gardens or on the terraces, form a whole, which gives an air of grandeur and majesty to this palace, which is as dismal in appearance as it is well guarded. A number of cannon are placed round the foot of the wall which surrounds it, and serve to give notices of feasts and public rejoicings, and to salute the Sultan when he goes by water.

Constantinople, which appears so magnificent at first sight, astonishes a stranger who goes through it; he then thinks himself little recompensed by the splendor of Sancta Sophia, which has been injured both by time and the Turks, and is equally dissatisfied with the trifling and ridiculous taste of certain gilt fountains and sum-

sumptuous fronts of some of the mosques: he sees nothing before him but irregular squares, arsenals badly provided, slips for building ships, in worse order, and the vessels themselves built on a most ridiculous model. When he passes the Seven Towers, he cannot help lamenting the unfortunate victims of an authority which is ignorant even of the laws of nations. Let him pass wherever he will, he finds narrow streets, most of them on steep and winding declivities, ill paved and always covered with filth, which the dogs, equally numerous and hungry, and who are the only scavengers of the capital, are constantly fighting for under the passengers' feet: he meets chariots something like coaches, drawn by two horses, which, moving with a solemn pace, on account of the difficulty of the ways, have in them the Turkish ladies taking the air, or going to pay visits. These shut up in their chests, have an opportunity of peeping thro' the lattices of the doors at the passengers, who are in constant danger of being pressed against the walls by the wheels of their carriages. Sometimes he beholds an unfortunate person, afflicted with the plague, drop down dead before him, and a porter, for the trifling hire which he would receive for carrying a bale of goods, takes the corpse on his back without ceremony, while the relation and friends of the deceased, as little fearful of danger as the porter, religiously press, to render him the last duties, without taking any precaution to secure themselves from the effects of that fatal disease; and they sometimes perish by it the next day or on the morrow.

A stranger will be much surprized and will behold with pleasure, many troops of women, much less confined at home than is generally thought in Europe, constantly in the street, going backward and forward, from and to the walks, the baths, the markets, or visiting. Two fine eyes may frequently be observed through veils of muslin, so thin as scarcely to hide the

features of the face; a cloak formed to shew the most beautiful figure, announces the most elegant form, and sets off the shape of a young female, who seems always attentive to observe what sensations her charms have occasioned: she continues her route, frequently casting the most expressive looks, and perhaps making a gracious and unequivocal sign, that is often attended with consequences: sometimes he meets grave matrons, whose enormous size requires the passenger to stand close to let them pass; these are followed by Turks, whose taste lays towards the *embourpoint*, who pursue them with a degree of admiration, mixed with enthusiasm, and mutter prayers to their prophet, that he will grant them wives of such a form.

All the houses in Constantinople are built of wood; the shops are convenient, but small, and shew the proprietors have only a moderate degree of property. The *Baselin*, or quarter of the jewellers, exhibits very considerable riches; although in a country where it is very dangerous to appear to possess any. We may sometimes wander over a large space of ruins, occasioned by the frequent fires which happen in this city, either for want of care, or by the villainy of factious people; sometimes these fires destroy whole quarters of the city.

The great gate of the *seraglio* is on the side of an irregular square, ornamented by a beautiful fountain on one side and by the facade of *Sancta Sophia* on the other. This valuable monument of the finest architecture still retains some marks of its original magnificence: the dome, ornamented with a most superb *Mosaic*, composed of different crystals, variously enamelled, strongly reproaches the ignorance and barbarity of the Turks, who suffer such a master-piece of workmanship daily to perish. On approaching the *seraglio*, we behold a large lodge, the windows of which over the door are stopped up by iron grating, and proclaim it to be rather the gloomy mansion of unhappy prisoners, than the place of resi-

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residence of the most powerful prince of Asia. To add to this melancholy sight, the heads of the proscribed are exposed on one side, and the carcases of executed criminals strewed about the square. A sight which increases the horror of those subjects who approach the palace, and who tremble for fear that they shall soon add to the number.

The interior part of the Seraglio is composed of those edifices which formed the palace of the Greek emperors: the Ottoman princes have enlarged it, as circumstances required, and to adopt it to their manners. The architecture of the new work is not good, and very irregular.

Opposite to the Seraglio, on the other side of the port, is a grand edifice with many domes, some brass cannon of various calibers without carriages, and ranged on the square down to the sea side, proclaim it to be the chief arsenal for the artillery, as the name of it, *Top-ana*, signifies. Above the suburbs of Pera is a straight and rough street, built in the form of an amphitheatre, which leads up to the top of the hill, on which is the *Frank's* street, called so because the ambassadors of all the European powers have there fixed their residence; many merchants of all countries have there also built some very good houses, every one of which have handsome kiosks, or belvederes, which afford them a fine view of the street each way. It is an agreeable sight to see the Greek ladies carelessly reclined on their sofas, employed almost from morning till night in viewing the passengers. This little recreation is so agreeable to them, that they pass half their time in answering the salutes of the different passengers who attract their attention either by a glance, an inclination of the head, or a kiss of the hand.

About the middle of this street is the college for the education of the Grand Signior's pages; he visits this place once a year, selects from among them such young persons as have made the greatest progress in their educa-

tion, and takes them with him to the Seraglio. It is pretended that none knows so well as the sultan, those among them who are the most able, and who deserve to be preferred.

At the bottom of this street is the hospital for those afflicted with the plague, to which such Europeans are carried who are attacked with that disorder; there is another for the reception of the Greeks. These establishments serve as asylums for such Christians who do not meet from their relations with that degree of pity and attention which a Mussulman, from the principles he has imbibed, affords to his brethren, if God pleases to afflict them, even at the risk of his own life. Beyond this is the burial ground of the Christians, which is planted with mulberry trees; this is made use of as a public walk, to which every Sunday a vast crowd of persons of both sexes resort, who often employ themselves in such a manner, as, rather than in meditating on the mortality of the human species, may in time tend to increase it.

Pera is almost wholly built of wood, at least there are but very few stone houses. The palaces of the ambassadors of France and Venice are of the latter number; those of the other ministers make a very pretty appearance, being painted in fresco; they are secured from fire by a wall which surrounds the house and offices.

There are many Christian churches in Pera, and divine service is performed without restriction, by monks of different orders. The Greeks and Armenians have churches according to their various rites, with distinct hierarchal establishments.

From Pera we go down to the suburbs of Galatea, which is built on a rapid declivity, by the side of the port; this quarter is inhabited by Greeks and Armenians; there are, however, many Turks residing there. Here the French merchants and those of many other nations have houses and storehouses, secured by good vaults to preserve their effects from the ravages of fires. Galatea has some churches

and ministers in it also. For a good see the Mussulmans are always ready to grant a toleration to their tributaries.

Not far from the custom-house of the Franks or Europeans, for they have one to themselves, is the quarter of the Jews; the exterior of their houses proclaim the extreme misery, but that is only from policy, their dirty appearance, added to their usual cringing behaviour, seems constantly to solicit the Mussulmen not to oppress them farther; they act as brokers and storekeepers for all the European merchants.

Near the middle of the port is the arsenal, composed of many barracks, in which the guards and workmen are lodged; the ammunition, not very considerable, is in some sheds, and materials for the construction of ships are never in any great quantity. Disorder and often a total neglect pervades the whole. Their docks exhibit only the awkwardness of the Ottoman workmen, in every thing which concerns marine affairs. Ships have remained seven years on the stocks, before they were ready. It is easy to conjecture what kind of ships these must be, constructed for the most part with pine timber, which, from the length of time employed in building, remain so long exposed to the air.

The bath, which composes part of the arsenal, is employed equally for the confinement of criminals, who are employed for a time on the public works, and slaves who are deprived of every hope of liberty. Here the unhappy prisoners of war are confined, heaped as it were one upon another, in sheds surrounded by thick walls, and constantly ill treated by their keepers; overwhelmed with misery, the plague and every evil incident to human nature continually afflicting them, until they sink by degrees under the weight of the evils laid on them by these barbarians.

At one side of the arsenal is the residence of the Captain Pacha, divided into several little pavilions, all on

the ground floor, and by the water side; they have a pretty appearance without, being built regularly.

Two cannon placed on a small platform was part of the cannon foundry established by Baron Tort. This officer did a most essential service to the Turks; he gave them the first ideas of a regular fortification, taught them the due proportion and advantage of artillery; his foundry is still to be seen with its furnaces, of which the French officers have lately made use.

The part of Constantinople opposite to this is called the Fanal; it is a hill, the houses on which being situated on the declivity, afford an agreeable prospect. The richest Greeks of the empire are settled there; the princes of Moldavia and Wallachia have also their residence there, which might be called palaces of these princes, although clothed with sovereign power in the provinces, of which the Porte entrusts them with the government, were they not while they are at Constantinople, the Chief among the tributaries who bow the neck to the yoke of servitude.

The Ar-Meydan, or the square of horses, is the most considerable in Constantinople. There is in it an Egyptian obelisk, on which are some hieroglyphics, and a very fine column of porphyry, split in many places, and secured by hoops of iron.

The Turks believe the story that Mahomet II. had split with a back stroke of his sabre, one of the serpents which form a column, raised in the middle of this square. It is bounded on one side by some houses of a bad appearance, and by a beautiful mosque on the other, the peristyle of which is a colonade: some extensive gaps occasioned by fire increases the extent of this ground, which is sometimes used for the amusement of the Giritta, which is a kind of tilting, and served formerly for a horse market.

The seven towers, an edifice of immense extent, surrounded by walls flanked with large towers, is the prison so much dreaded by the ministers of those powers who happen to have

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any contest with the Ottoman port; this citadel, whose fortifications are sufficient only to secure prisoners, commands the sea of Marmora, and extends along its sides. The last fire in 1782, which consumed near a third of Constantinople, destroyed a number of unfortunate wretches, who were imprisoned in this fortress, many buildings in the interior parts of which were consumed by the flames.

The port of Constantinople has a vast depth of water, the currents which are constantly scouring it, preserves it always in good condition; vessels of all sizes may anchor here in safety, and even lay a cable on shore. There is not one quay round this port; the approaches to the landing places, are only narrow places, and three barks a breast can scarcely lay at the planks placed there to facilitate the embarkation and landing.

The tower of Leander, which has some cannon mounted even with the ground, has within a very fine spring of fresh water, although it is situated on a rock in the middle of the strait; some lanterns are lighted here every night to serve as a guide to ships. The city of Scutari, built on the Asiatic shore, opposite to Constantinople, rises in form of an amphitheatre, and commands the entrance to the canal, it seems to make one of the suburbs to the capital, and has in the environs some beautiful mausoleums and superb tombs. The Ottomans regard the Asiatic shore as the country of their forefathers; and if the right of conquest induces them to reside in Europe, their fanaticism makes them wish

to deposit their ashes in Asia; this desire makes the number of burying grounds in the neighbourhood of Scutari immense. These also, like those in the environs of Constantinople, serve as places of rendezvous to the women of all ranks; their pretence for visiting them, is to weep over the ashes of their relations. The quantity of cypress trees planted in them, affords a fine shade and an agreeable freshness. But as the men have also the same right to resort thither and weep over their deceased friends, the fair devotees have frequent opportunities to comfort themselves with the living for the loss of the dead.

The stranger who does not go there to dry the eyes of the widow, observes with regret an infinite number of broken columns, covered with inscriptions in gold, on a blue ground. They proclaim the ignorance of the Turks in all ages, who, after having enslaved and desolated Greece, jealous of the superiority of these master pieces of art over their own bad taste, have placed over their tombs some of the most precious remains of ancient marble, less for the sake of making their wretched monuments respectable, than to insult the memory of a people who were able to immortalize their existence by such monuments of greatness.

Such is the capital of the Ottoman empire, which is daily rising up from its ashes; the population is nearly equal to Paris, and seems for three centuries to have braved the ravages of the plague, which is here equally constant and destructive.

OF THE PRESENT REIGNING SULTAN, SELIM; REGULATIONS OF THE SERAGLIO; OF THE PRESUMPTIVE HEIR, AND MODE OF SUCCESSION IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

BY THE SAME.

THE death of Sultan Abdul Hamet put an end to the captivity of his nephew, Sultan Selim, whose accession to the empire, it was

judged, would animate the interior operation of government; and the Janissaries, who founded all their hopes on the courage and intrepidity of his

character, soon forgot their deceased Sultan, whom they had often accused of ignorance and weakness. The new Sultan, Selim, at first appointed to the command of the armies his Grand Vizier Youssif Pacha, who, from the low condition of a slave to the high admiral, had, by Sultan Abdul Hamet, been raised to the first station in the empire, and possessed his prince's entire confidence. Youssif Pacha, in a short time, was sacrificed to envy, banished into Bessarabia, and his post given to the Pacha of Vidin, who had often distinguished himself in the last war.

The Turks are seldom favoured with a sight of their sovereign; it is only on a Friday that his highness repairs, attended by a pompous and magnificent train, to the mosque of Sancta Sophia, from whence, after having finished his devotions, he returns back within those walls where many of his predecessors have been often troubled with the revolt of their Janissaries, and have even paid the forfeit of their lives for their own inattention, or for the exactions of their ministers.

A very numerous guard of Bostangis, distinguished by a large cap made of scarlet cloth, and falling down behind, keep watch night and day in the courts and round the walls of the seraglio. A multitude of eunuchs, both white and black, form the interior guard, and do not permit even women to enter until they have been physically assured of their sex.

The manners of this palace, inaccessible to the male sex, are little known; and the various relations thereof, given by some females who have attained admission with difficulty, are not sufficiently attested to induce us to believe that they have been well informed of the rules preserved in a place so very extensive, and where a profound secrecy reigns; and where intrigue, ambition, hatred, and even treason, are every day practised.

It is only known, that when a Sultan succeeds to the empire, all the

nobles present him with female virgin slaves; this is done with a view to secure themselves so many patronesses: from these, and the females educated in the seraglio from their infancy, his highness selects six virgins, who are called *kaduns*, or princesses; but the Sultan Abdul Hamet, finding (doubtless) that this number was not sufficient, had installed a seventh. It may be presumed that Sultan Selim will not omit following his uncle's example in that respect. Of these *kaduns*, the first who brings forth a male child has a pre-eminence over the others, without however acquiring the exclusive title of favourite Sultana. There are also many other women in the seraglio, whose numbers are limited only by the will of the Sultan; but they seldom bring forth any children, owing to the jealousy and intrigues of the *kaduns*, who think they have an exclusive right to give successors to the empire.

His highness also receives a young virgin every Friday: this sacrifice, continued every week, cannot fail to be troublesome to him in an advanced age; but it is one of the privileges of the monarchy, and what no Sultan will omit. If their interview appears, at the end of a certain time, not to be attended with any consequences, great care is taken to provide husbands for these young girls, and there are plenty always ready to espouse them; but if the Sultan takes a particular affection to any of these young slaves, and wishes to preserve them from the murdering projects of their rivals, who would certainly endeavour to prevent their bringing forth any issue, he gives orders for their security; but their children cannot claim any title to the imperial succession, provided any of the *kaduns* have male children.

The presumptive heir is confined in a quarter of the seraglio; he has no women in his power but such as are past the age of bearing children; his mother is confined in the old seraglio; for fear that her wishes to exalt her son to the throne, before his

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time, should produce any intrigues that might bring on a revolt or a revolution: she is permitted to see her son only twice a year, at the two feasts of the great and little *Beyram*, when the Sultan carries him to the old seraglio; the one goes to view the nursery of his pleasures, for there the young Circassians, Georgians, and others, who are bought in their infancy from those who bring them to Constantinople; and the other to enjoy, for a few hours, the embraces of her who gave him birth: after which the young prince sorrowfully returns through the streets, casts a few glances on the attendants who surround him, beholds only his tyrant and his guards, and doubtless sighs for the moment in which the death of him who holds him in slavery shall bring those who now keep him in captivity prostrate at his feet.

Notwithstanding this precaution in keeping the prince, who has the right of succession to the empire, thus sequestered, the Janissaries have often deposed the Sultan, and placed on the throne the person thus kept in captivity.

The brother succeeds the brother, and the nephew succeeding the uncle, acquires, at a more advanced age, the inheritance of his father. Thus Sultan Selim, son of Sultan Mustapha, succeeds his uncle Abdul Hamet, and the son of the latter, who, in his turn, is now confined, will assume the ensigns of royalty after the death of Sultan Selim. This method of succession appears very judicious, as it preserves the state from those fatal consequences which almost constantly attend the minority of the sovereign.

At the death of a Sultan, the new emperor removes all the kaduns and other women belonging to his predecessor into the old seraglio, and re-peoples his harem in the usual manner; all those who have not had any children, or whose children are dead, are soon married to the lords, who look on it as a great honour to be permitted to espouse the widow of their master.

The custom of the Ottomans is to invest the new Sultan, when proclaimed, with a sword; he is then surrounded with Janissaries, of which he becomes one, and his name inscribed, is carried at the head of the first legion of that militia; he takes an oath to preserve their privileges, and promises to all orders of the empire to rule over them with justice.

It must be confessed that this ceremony is much more suited to a noble and warlike nation, than those used in the inauguration of the sovereigns of Europe, who receive those marks of their subjects' obedience on their knees, bending their heads before the prelate who crowns them. It is true, that by being invested with the dignities of *Kalif* and supreme *Imam*, the Sultan immediately becomes monarch and high priest. The successors of Mahomed, who assumed the title of *Kalif*, or Vicar of the Prophet, successively removed their royal seats from Medina to Couffa, on the Euphrates, and at last established it at Bagdat, where it remained many ages. These kaliffs at first assumed both the pontificate and royalty, until the Turkish sultans began to find how dangerous it was to be subject to a foreign pontiff, who possessed a sovereignty; they dreaded exposing themselves to the payment of ecclesiastical dues, therefore opposed his bulls, and prevented the exportation of specie. They would doubtless without this have seen an army of *derwises* spring up, under the name of the company of Mahomet, who would have undermined the Imperial authority, and joined with the Kaliff of Bagdat in the abuse of their ministry. These reasons combined were sufficiently powerful to induce the Sultans to deprive the Kaliffs of their double authority. They at first respected them from policy, but by degrees they assumed the priestly power to themselves, and the esteem for them which was supported only by opinion, grew weaker, and at last disappeared. The sultan now in his joint characters of *Kaliff* and supreme *Imam*, regards the

the Musti only as his secretary and interpreter, to explain the Alcoran. From hence arises the real grandeur of the Ottoman prince, who never is required to bend the knee to any mortal; while the first prince in Europe, who has only the rank of deacon in the Roman hierarchy, can only be placed after the dean of the cardinals in a pontifical ceremony.

The aigrette is among the Ottomans, the mark of Imperial power; the sultan and his children only have the privilege of wearing it. It is composed of many large diamonds surmounted with black plumes, of great value; and is placed in the middle of the turban, above the forehead.

The sultan has a palace on the canal of the Black Sea, and another in

the middle of the port. It is a grand and magnificent sight to see this sovereign and his train pass in his gondolas; the figure of a cock, of solid gold, which is upon the royal gondola, distinguishes it from the rest. All of them are richly painted and gilt, rowed by stout boatmen; they pass through the water with a surprising celerity, while the artillery of the Seraglio, the arsenal, and the ships, by repeated discharges of artillery, salute his Highness as he passes.

The sultan, like the other princes of Europe, has many great officers of his household, who hold the first rank in the empire; their employments are in general similar to those in other European courts, except the establishment of the eunuchs, which are peculiar to the Asiatic princes.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FOREIGN.

MEMORIAL ON THE STATE OF THE INLAND AND FOREIGN COMMERCE OF FRANCE, FROM THE FIRST CRUSADE TO THE REIGN OF LOUIS XII. *A work which obtained the prize from the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, at their public Sitting, Easter, 1789.* By M. Cliquot de Bler-vache. Paris, 8vo. 1790.

THE commerce of France, says Mr. Cliquot, was considerable before the conquest of Gaul by the Romans; it was, however, very much confined some ages afterwards, which must naturally surprise us, if we examine the geographical position of the kingdom, its natural advantages, the many navigable rivers, numerous pastures, the fertility of the ground, and its very great, laborious, active, and intelligent population.

Many causes concurred to effect this decay of commerce. The form of government; insurrections of the

great vassals against the royal authority; the feudal raised on the ruins of their ancient monarchy; personal slavery annexed to the lands; the enormous power and riches of the clergy; the multiplicity of tolls; the little protection commerce received from the crown; scarcity of capital; the exorbitant interest of money; the low esteem in which those who followed commerce and agriculture were held, and the bad condition of the roads &c. What a multitude of obstacles to the improvement of the public welfare! many of them our present National Assembly have had to encounter.

The prosperous situation of France under Charlemagne lasted only during his reign. When Hugh Capet assumed that sceptre which had trembled in the hands of the weak kings of the second race, the kingdom was divided into almost as many sovereignties as there were provinces. From whence sprung a total loss of legitimate authority,

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city, a confusion and incoherence of customs: *The kingdom*, (says Mezerai) *was then subject to the feudal law, and was governed rather like a great fief, than a monarchy.*

Our kings, he afterwards tells us, sometimes paid homage to their own subjects for lands they held of them. This strange custom was not abolished until Phillip le Bel converted that homage into a pecuniary indemnity.

In vain did the first kings of the third race employ themselves in measures for the increase of commerce; their authority was of no avail over such powerful vassals, who had assumed the sovereign powers of making war, raising imposts, &c.

To alter this monstrous order of things was reserved for a gentleman of Picardy, who, having travelled over Palestine in the habit of a hermit, where he was witness of the evils the Christians suffered under the Mussulman government, returned into France with a view to stimulate his fellow subjects, by the report he gave of the wretched situation of their brethren, to assist them. Pope Urban at the same time foreseeing the possibility of augmenting the right and prerogatives of his see, by preaching a crusade against the Mussulmans, Syria was soon after seen covered with the ensigns of France.

Mr. Cluquet does not endeavour to hide either the fanaticism, or the misfortunes of these emigrations; but he observes they have produced two remarkable advantages for posterity; that it was not until that epocha, that the people, hitherto in a state of degradation, were considered as a valuable portion of the community, and that the first attacks were now made on the barbarous despotism of the feudal system.

The barons, when they returned from these expeditions, had contracted heavy debts, which obliged them either to sell or mortgage their fiefs. They obtained permission for this of the sovereign, who at the same time gave leave for the plebeians to purchase, and hold them for

a certain rent payable to the sovereign. This rent required by the prince was in the Cambresis called the *tot-quot*, and was paid into the chamber of accounts. The enormous disproportion of property now insensibly grew less, by a part of the real property of the kingdom returning into the hands of the people, whom the feudal system had deprived of it.

A second advantage arising from these crusades, was the opening a communication with Asia, Africa, and the ports of Europe washed by the Mediterranean, which had been hitherto unknown to the French merchants.

Venice, Pisa, and Genoa felt the first effects of this revolution. The riches of these republics increased considerably, "but," says our author, they preserved them no longer than they were able to keep in their hands the means by which they had acquired them: for the greatest advantage arising to an empire from commerce and agriculture is not the introduction of circulating riches; they would be so much the more dangerous, as they would introduce luxury and its natural associate immorality, if these two arts, and agriculture in particular, did not at the same time introduce other advantages infinitely more important. They inspire a love of labour, a powerful means to instil good manners, and the spirit of order and economy, (which act as powerfully for public as private welfare), the improvement of the soil, the only source of true riches, and lastly, a desire for liberty, so necessary in traffic and circulation.

It was not before the end of the thirteenth, and in the course of the fourteenth century, when these alienations became more frequent, that the good effects of this revolution began to be felt. Until then, commerce was trifling. How could it exist in a nation consisting only of feudal proprietors, and slaves to dependant on the soil, that they were disposed of with it, like the meanest cattle? We cannot here omit the
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ninth note on the first part, in which, in support of what has been said, we read the following fact. *In 1155, Hugh de Champfleury, Bishop of Soissons, being in want of a fine horse to make his entry into his episcopal city, he was presented with one, for which he gave five serfs, or bondsmen in return, that is, three men and two women.* Essay Hist. sur Paris, tom. V. page 423.

The church and the nobility were then in possession of every thing, but their immense territories produced little. Part of their lands remained barren; and the other parts were badly cultivated by the hands of those who had no prospect of reaping the benefit of their labour.

To this picture of the situation of France, (which we have greatly abridged) succeeds an examination of the following questions. First, *What was the commerce of the southern provinces?* Second, *What has been that of the northern?* Third, *In what manner has it been carried on?*

First. We ought, says Mr. Cliquot, to premise, that at the time of the first Crusade, our kings were unable to afford protection to the interior and exterior commerce of the southern parts of France, only indirectly. They had long been under the laws of foreign princes. These coasts belonged to the counts of Toulouse, and to the kings of Majorca, Castile, and Arragon. Our princes had only some ports on the ocean, but none of them had any on the Mediterranean before St. Louis. This prince was the first who had an officer with the title of admiral. It will be in vain, to object to this, that Philip Augustus, in his expedition against England, equipped a fleet of 1700 vessels; that Saint Louis departed for the Holy Land with 1800 ships. The less perfect these ships were, the more they stood in need of, the author of the *Essay on the Ancient Marine* observes, that these, apparently, were all badly equipped.

The southern provinces, happily situated for the commerce of Asia,

carried it on long under the protection of the Italian republics, and Marseilles was the first that reaped any benefit from the establishment of the Crusades in Asia. The abolition of slavery in these provinces was rather the work of opinion, and of public morals, than of any law. They were at last emerged from that state of barbarism, in which the Jews were permitted to purchase the labouring people of the country as slaves, and sell them again to the Saracens of Spain and Africa; where, (says l'Histoire General de Provence, tom. ii.) unhappy people were sent to suffer in chains, in that very place which now furnishes slaves to the rest of the world.

The crusades are the true epocha of the rise of commerce at Marseilles. The troops went at first through Hungary, but suffered so much in the march, that they preferred going by sea. Then Marseilles furnished a part of the ships for transporting them, victualled them for the voyage, and absorbed great part of the money of the crusaders.

This happy state of our southern cities ended about the middle of the fourteenth century, by the long and ruinous wars which the Counts of Provence carried on for the preservation of the rights acquired by the house of Anjou to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, by the conquests which Charles, brother of St. Louis, had made thereof.

'Tis thus, says our author, that the princes of the house of Anjou sacrificed their true interests, and those of Provence, to the acquisition of rights, which were just without doubt, but which their strength was neither sufficient to pursue or to preserve; so that the commerce of Marseilles could not recover itself until after Charles Count du Maine had surrendered to Lewis XI. Provence, and his title to Naples and Sicily.

Our limits will not permit us to follow Mr. Cliquot through the details he enters into on the commerce of the southern, and some of the
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western provinces of France, long groaning under the weight of duties and imposts, little proportioned to encourage that industry which cannot be too much favored. Let us only observe, with our author, that before the crusades our workmen used only hemp, flax and wool, although silk was known in Europe from the reign of the Emperor Justinian: that Spain was earlier than France in the fabrication of silk; that the use of those manufactures was introduced into Provence before the art of weaving them, which was not known there before the end of the twelfth century; and that silk was still scarcer in France in 1345; since the manufacture of that commodity did not make any considerable progress before the time of Henry II. under whom, we may observe, that silks as well as metals are mentioned in the treaties of redemption and ransom.

Secondly, We are told in history, that if France has been long but little advanced in the knowledge of commerce, she was, however, in that respect much superior to England, who at that time was beholden to her industry. It would not, Mr. Cliquot observes, be difficult to prove that it is from the ancient ordinances of our kings they have drawn their best commercial laws. If we peruse the edicts of Charles VIII. those of Lewis XII. in 1504, and of Francis I. in 1538, we shall find the principles and basis of their whole system.

Until the sixteenth century, Great Britain knew no other method of drawing a profit from her wool, but by selling it unwrought, for want of knowing how to manufacture it; and this ignorance continued until 1558, when the Duke of Guise made himself master of Calais, which place had hitherto been the only and general mart for that valuable merchandise, which for many ages enriched and clothed our northern provinces.

In 1256, the city of Amiens was famous for fine dying. This profession, and selling the fine materials, was

here followed by the most opulent and respectable citizens, since from the time of the establishment of the Commons, it was a necessary qualification for an alderman to be one of the body of *waidiers* or dyers.

The cities of Beauvais and Arras, until the end of the 15th century, flourished exceedingly by their wool-len manufactures; but the latter having been so imprudent as to provoke the anger of that terrible prince Lewis XI. he treated it with the greatest rigor, and destroyed it. He was afterwards inclined to rebuild it; but he did not consider, that population and industry are not so easily restored, as walls are rebuilt.

Flanders has constantly been the favourite residence of agriculture and manufactures. The inhabitants have never neglected the working of these two mines of true riches, both equally the produce of their soil. The Flemings and the other manufacturing towns of Belgic Gaul are indebted for their flourishing situation, to the sale they had gained by the consumption of their manufactures in Germany, in the North, and particularly in England; the latter country, from the eleventh century to the time of the discovery of America, had been the source of the prosperity of the Flemings; so that it is not surprising, that during that period, they manifested a much greater respect for the English than for the French.

In pursuing his enquiries respecting the northern provinces, our author conducts us from the Low Countries to Normandy, a province which has ever been celebrated for its industry. In the fifteenth century, we find the city of Yvetot much distinguished. The inhabitants were allowed an exemption from all taxes and impositions, in all the commercial towns in the province, particularly for the cloths which the Spaniards brought into France. They manufactured their own wool, and sold their cloths to the French. The

English, on the contrary, sold their wool to the French, who in return, sold them the very fine stuffs they had manufactured with it. The connections of Spain and England, with the commerce of France, is at present reversed, a revolution occasioned by the discovery of the metals of America. Spain, intoxicated by their new possessions, thought, that by possessing the representative matter of all value, they had no longer any occasion to be industrious; abandoned the reality for its symbol, and seized the shadow for the substance. Their manufactures gradually disappeared, and their deserted provinces convinced them, when it was too late, of their error, in exchanging an industrious population for lifeless silver.

The manufactory of fluffs, cultivation, and both importation and exportation, flourished in Normandy with the greatest activity. The cities of Rouen, St. Lo, and Caen, applied particularly to manufacture.

When the English ravaged this province in 1340, they made an immense booty. The city of St. Lo was plundered. Contemporary authors relate, that *no man living can conceive the immense property that was acquired there, and the great barvest of cloths found therein.* The city of Caen experienced the same calamity; the plundering of that city lasted three days, and was so very considerable, that the English loaded their whole fleet with cloths, jewels, vessels of gold and silver, and every other kind of riches.

The sovereigns of Bretagne had encouraged arts and commerce. But the wars they had to maintain, to support themselves in their dominions, had driven out the weavers, the dyers, the hat-makers, and others. Their duke, Peter II. to induce them to return, promised those who established themselves at Vannes, that they should be exempt from all hearth money, taxes, and other impositions, during their lives. This prince, in 1464, renewed all the treaties of commerce which ex-

isted between England and Bretagne. The dukes renewed them in 1489, with the same privileges.

The Normans and Britons were the first Europeans who discovered the western coasts of Africa, which were known in the time of the Ptolemies, but had been since neglected. These two people have even a claim of having pushed their discoveries to the westward, and into the North sea.

A Norman gentleman, who did not think a knowledge of the commerce of his country would derogate from his rank, Jean de Bethancourt, lord of Grainville, tired of the troubles which then divided France, conceived a project of exploring a passage on the North sea, towards the west.

He departed in 1402, in quest of discoveries; but this enterprise was only a preface of the course commerce would open to itself by new ways.

By connecting what has been said of the commerce of the northern provinces, with the view of that of the southern, we may form an idea of the general commerce of France, from the time of the first crusade, until Lewis XII. But our author does not think he has fulfilled his task, if he does not attempt to trace the manner in which it has been carried on in the same space of time. This is the subject of the third part of his memorial.

The commerce was with difficulty carried on in the first ages, of which Mr. Cliquot has spoken. The danger of the passages, roads scarcely passable, many dangers, scarcity of capital, high interest of money; the disgraceful situation in which those who pursued agriculture or commerce were held; the profound ignorance of the people, and the difficulty of correspondence; such were the obstacles which powerfully opposed the progress of commerce. Even in the cities, the streets were not paved, this was not attended to until Phillip Augustus.

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Avarice, or distrust of those who possessed money, were at this time so prevalent, that they melted down their money into ingots. As to the interest of money, the common rate was from twenty to a hundred per cent; this continued until the fifteenth century. The Jews and Lombards, who were afterwards too much imitated by the natives, carried on this shameful traffic, which the ordinances of Philip le Bel, Charles V. Charles VI. and Lewis XII. could not prevent.

It is true, that personal servitude disappeared entirely in the fifteenth century; but the manumissions were not gratuitous. Personal was commuted into real servitude; even the glebe became servile, and the feudal rights on the glebe, were settled in proportion to the exorbitant rate of interest. This glebe was also burthened with the ecclesiastical tythe, a burden which the nation acceded to, but with the greatest repugnance, and under the express stipulation that it might be redeemed. Those enormous proceedings, says Mr. Cliquot, must necessarily repress the seeds of the annual productions, thus a great part of the soil remained barren, or was covered with immense forests. Three causes have since concurred to raise agriculture from the depressed state to which the feudal system had reduced it.

First. The exterior commerce of the established manufactures. Second. The numerous and extensive cessions which the lords of large territories made to the monastic orders, which increased astonishingly in the eleventh and twelfth century, which grants were all made in *franc alemeigne*, and were not loaded with any feudal rights, since most of their rents were fixed in money. The more enlightened ecclesiastics avoided this error, they left these rights in their original state; so that these duties were always burthensome to agriculture.

In treating of the operations of commerce, the author has thought himself obliged to advert to the ope-

rations of agriculture; they are, he observes, so clearly united, that the same means which makes the one prosper, animates the activity of the other. There exists between them a connection formed by nature, with a tacit agreement to share the profit or loss. Agriculture finds the capital, commerce fixes its value. Their course has been always more or less obstructed, either by prejudice, ignorance, or a want of means, in the periods our author has been reviewing.

"They had then," says he, "no fixed ideas of the intrinsic value of the respective monies; on the utility and principle of keeping both the value, and rate of interest fixed; on the connections of interest between them and their neighbours, on the advantage of a considerable exportation, of which they were afraid, and of the danger of a destructive importation, which they permitted. They did not yet foresee all the advantages that could accrue from the oeconomy of the labour of men. A vicious regulation, supported by the dread of a moderate and wisely proportioned export of corn, arrested the progress of agriculture. This latter prejudice, which has prevailed against the most useful of all arts, has continued even to our time; and proves how forcibly the strength of a received opinion, and the empire of a favourite error, can operate against reason."

As there were no posts then established, it was difficult for the merchants to establish a correspondence for the sale of their merchandize, particularly in the interior parts of the kingdom. They were supplied by fairs: by degrees, every province, every city, every town, had one established in it; but most of them were only markets, and served only for the sale of the production of the country. There were some which were much more considerable, to which a great number of merchants repaired, not only of France, but from almost every part of Europe. Of this sort of fairs, were those of

Montpellier, Beauvais, Lyons, Caen, Guibray, Rouen, St. Denis, &c. but the most celebrated were those of Champagne and Brie. In these provinces they had fix in a year, of which two were held at Troyes, the others at Provence, Lagny-sur-Marne, Reims, and Bar-sur-Aube.

These prosperous days for Champagne continued until 1445, when they were removed to Lyons, to which place they have carried the same degree of opulence. The nobility then did not blush on entering into the pursuit of commerce; that class of

citizens was not then confined to one only, in which they could serve their country, and was not ashamed of a profession so useful to society.

The advantages which the fairs had produced were greatly encreased by a celebrated establishment known by the name of the Hans-towns, an association of certain cities in the Baltic for the protection of their commerce.

A variety of curious details renders this work very interesting: these our limits will not permit us to enter farther into.

BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS TO DISCOVER THE SOURCES OF THE NILE, By James Bruce, of Kinnaird, *Esq.* F. R. S. 5 Vols. 4to. Robinson.

AT length the long-expected travels of Mr. Bruce have made their appearance. Convinced of the difficulty of the task Mr. Bruce had to effect, we wish to avoid any criticism, and at the same time, fully convinced that the work might have been given to the world in a much better style, we shall equally abstain from panegyric. An Analytical Review of this work, we conceive, will give such of our readers as have not an opportunity of reading it the best idea, and those who have such an opportunity will judge for themselves.

It commences with a dedication to the king, in which a very proper compliment is paid to the sovereign, on the great encouragement he has given to discoveries. The author then proceeds to state some of the difficulties attending the undertaking. "To a country whose situation was barely known, placed under the most inclement skies, in part surrounded by impenetrable forests, where the beasts had established a sovereignty, and in part by vast deserts of moving sands, where nothing was to be found that

had the breath of life; thus shut up, the inhabitants had been long growing every day more barbarous, and defied the curiosity of travellers of every nation."

Under these difficulties, he undertook the discovery, and from Egypt penetrated through Arabia, employing six years in the survey, and in that time described a circumference whose greater axis comprehended 22 degrees of the meridian, in which dreadful circle was contained all that is terrible to the feelings, prejudicial to the health, or fatal to the life of man.

The introduction, which is very long, sets out with remarking on the ardent desire the ancients manifested to discover the sources of that much celebrated river the Nile, and that the same desire revived on the revival of letters. An attempt of that kind had met with difficulties until his majesty's reign, when our adventurer happily succeeded.

Mr. Bruce thinks it proper to apologize for the length of time which has elapsed (sixteen years) between his return from Abyssinia and the publication. This delay, he observes, gave men opportunities to censure his inattention to the desires of the public, and that some even doubted whether he had ever performed the jour

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ney. The reasons he ascribes for such procrastination, are a number of litigations he has been engaged in to secure his property, a continuance of ill health, occasioned by the remains of an ague caught on his travels, and the loss of his wife, after a long and lingering illness.

Our author, whose patrimony was small, was first noticed by the late Lord Chatham, but was not employed by Government until Lord Halifax proposed to him the making a discovery of the large and magnificent remains of ruined architecture on the coast of Barbary; and at the same time the discovery of the source of the Nile was mentioned, but not resolved on. To enable Mr. Bruce to perform this service, he was appointed consul at Algiers, and being provided with a large apparatus of instruments, he set off for Italy, through France, and embarked from thence for Barbary.

At Naples he gained some information from slaves of the ruins of which he was in search. While there, he endeavoured to procure assistants to accompany him, and prevailed on a young architect of Bologna to undertake the voyage. This young man died soon after they entered Ethiopia. Mr. Bruce then applied himself to learn the Arabic and Ethiopic languages. A dispute about the Mediterranean passes prevented for some time his departure: in the interval, he studied medicine and surgery, and having contracted an intimacy with a venerable and social Greek priest, from him learned the pronunciation of the Greek, spoken and written in the Archipelago.

At last he sailed for Port Mahon, and from thence to Bona, (the ancient Aphrodisium) on the coast of Africa. He had a very pleasant voyage down the coast, saw the remains of Utica, now only a heap of rubbish, but the trenches and lines of the ancient besiegers are still very perfect. Passing to Golatta, he saw part of the ruins of ancient Carthage, under water. At Tunis he engaged a French

renegade and ten spahis, and was furnished with a covered cart to carry his instruments. Proceeding by land, along the coast, at a place called Duga he found a very curious piece of ruins, of which he made a drawing, which is in the king's cabinet, *but no engraving of it is in the book.*

At a frontier place, called Hydra, between Algiers and Tunis, Mr. Bruce met with a tribe of Arabs who, he tells us, are very rich, as they pay no tribute; and that they have this exemption by an obligation they lay under to live upon lions flesh daily, *as far as they can procure it*, and in consequence of this life, Mr. Bruce says, they are excellent and well-armed horsemen. This tale, and our author's conclusion thereon, we must leave to the reader's judgment, to make his comments upon. At Thodrunum he saw a triumphal arch, the drawing of which, the purchaser of Mr. Bruce's book is told, for his comfort, *is in the king's collection.*

Mr. Bruce thinks the story of the lion-eating requires some support, and therefore assures us he had ate part of those lions in the tents of the Arabs above-mentioned. At Typasa he met with more ruins, of a large temple, and a triumphal arch; the drawings of both are in the king's collection, but no engraving of them is in the book; we shall hereafter hear Mr. Bruce's reasons for not giving them to the public. At Midrassem, he saw the ruins of the sepulchre of Syphax: the drawing of this, Mr. Bruce informs us, is in his own collection; whether it was too good or too bad to form part of the bargain he made with his sovereign, our author has not told us.

In this part of the journey, he met with a tribe who were nearly as fair as the English; their hair red, and their eyes blue: a savage and independent people; each of them had a Greek cross, marked with antimony, in the middle, between both eyes. This tribe Mr. Bruce conjectures to be Vandals; those people, with great pleasure, confessed themselves to be

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Christians. At Spoutla, Mr. Bruce drew a beautiful capital, of the composite order, which is, he says, the only perfect one that now exists; this our traveller, rightly judging to be too good for common eyes, has likewise placed in the collection of the king. At Feriana he found some baths of very warm water, in which were a number of fish not unlike gudgeons; the heat was so great, by the thermometer, that our traveller was surprized the fish was not boiled: however, he entered it himself, (chap. XXXIV.) and came out as safe from this boiling as the gudgeons.

About four days journey from Tripoli, Mr. Bruce met an Emir conducting a caravan of pilgrims, to use our author's own words, *all across Africa to Mecca*; this caravan was of prodigious size, it consisted of 5000 men, and 14,000 camels. From Tripoli our traveller passed on to Tunis, and crossed the Gulph of Sidon to Bengazi, the ancient Birinici: here Mr. Bruce embarked on board a vessel, which was unfortunately wrecked, and he narrowly escaped being drowned, being thrown on shore senseless; from this state he was removed by the stroke of a lance, being mistaken for a Turk, and otherwise ill treated; he also lost some of his instruments.

Proceeding from thence to Sidon, he made some stay there, and visited some neighbouring places, then went to Aleppo, where he met with good medical assistance, and soon after proceeded to Palmyra. Nothing new is inserted of these celebrated ruins, nor of Balbec, which place he likewise visited; but for the drawings taken of the ruins we are, as usual, referred to the king's collection. Mr. Bruce, on his return to Sidon, found his loss of instruments repaired by his friends in London and Paris; and had also the pleasure of receiving a quadrant from the King of France, Louis XIV. The letters which accompanied these, determined him to proceed immediately for Abyssinia. Thus far the introduction.

On Saturday, June 15, 1768, he failed in a French vessel for Sidon: in the run to Cyprus, he observed a number of thin white clouds moving with rapidity in direct opposition to the wind; they were of an immense height. The island of Cyprus, notwithstanding its vicinity to the continent, remained undiscovered for 500 years after we have authentic intelligence of those seas being navigated. Here Mr. Bruce saw some curious antique medals and entaglios, particularly of the latter; and some heads of Jupiter, of exquisite workmanship. The havoc made by time is very conspicuous in the countries our traveller had visited. All vestiges of Tyre are defaced; the ports of Sidon, Baraut, Tripoli, and Latikea, are all filled up by sand, and at Sidon he found the pavement of the old city seven feet and a half lower than the ground: this he supposes to be the effect of the easterly current setting on the coast. At Alexandria, Mr. Bruce being disguised in the dress of an Arab, passed quietly through any part of the city, and was generally taken for a Bedouin.

Mr. Bruce does not give us any new remarks on Alexandria; the latitude, by observation, he made to be $30^{\circ} 11' 16''$, in which he differs somewhat from Mr. Niebuhr; and the longitude, observed by an eclipse of the first satellite of Jupiter, he found to be $30^{\circ} 17' 30''$ east of Greenwich. Proceeding thence to Rosetto; which place Mr. Bruce observes is of good reputation, the people mild and tractable. He next went to Cairo. The gentleman he was recommended to here endeavoured to prevail on him to abandon his dangerous project, but without effect; however, as the Government had always been jealous of this enterprize, he was obliged to pretend his destination was for India: here he was looked on as a Fakir or Dervish, who cared for nothing but books and study: this gave him an opportunity to purchase many valuable Arabic manuscripts. The French

have

have a factory here, who are constantly exposed to the exactions of this bad government. The merchants, Mr. Bruce observes, are polite gentlemen, and bear these vexations with fortitude.

While Mr. Bruce was at Cairo, the celebrated Ali Bey governed, who suspended the effects of tyranny for a time; from him, by means of his secretary, Mr. Bruce received many civilities. The secretary (Risk) was one of those beings who apply to astrology, and the sight of Mr. Bruce's curious instruments convinced Risk that he was one of his own order. Here our traveller met his old friend the Greek priest, and was informed that there were many Greeks in Abyssinia in great power; to these he received letters of recommendation. His interview with the Bey gives us no high opinion of a man who had the address to subvert the government of Egypt, and, but for an untoward circumstance, would have made the Ottoman empire to tremble. Mr. Bruce appearing to have a knowledge of physick, was consulted by Risk on the Bey's disorder, which was only indigestion, arising from excess; our doctor prescribed an infusion of green tea, to act as an emetic. Risk modestly desired him to make some, and take it himself, to shew how it operated, which, as we may suppose, our physician declined.

Having prepared every thing, Mr. Bruce hired a vessel, called a *Canga*, and embarked in her to proceed up the Nile. Soon after they left Cairo, they had a view of some of the pyramids, and as they proceeded saw many more. Mr. Bruce's description of the passing up the Nile is entertaining, and his remarks ingenious: we are sorry the limits of our work will not permit us to enter into a more full detail of it. Mr. Bruce enters into a disquisition respecting the situation of Memphis, the ancient capital of Egypt, and is of opinion, with Dr. Pococke, that it was at Mehary: he also clears up a mistake of Mr. Nordin's translator, who

says, "We saw this day abundance of camels, but they did not come near enough for us to shoot them." Mr. Bruce says he was much struck at the absurd idea of shooting so useful a creature as a camel; and on looking at the note, he finds the French to be *chameau d'eau*, a bird called by the Arabs *jemme el bahar*, the *camel of the river*, and by us a pelican.

Advancing up the river, they saw some plantations of sugar-canes, as far to the Northward as 29°. Mr. Bruce suggests the sugar-cane to be a plant of the old continent, because they grow here from seed. During this passage our travellers were obliged to keep a good watch at night, for fear of fresh-water thieves, which much infest this river. At a village called Rhoda, Mr. Bruce saw the magnificent ruins of the ancient temple of Antinous, built by Adrian. As he had no knowledge of those ruins, and consequently had not provided letters of recommendation, he did not think proper to venture on shore. He asked his *Rai*, or master of the vessel, what sort of people inhabited that place; who replied, "they were very bad Turks, very bad Moors, and very bad Christians; that several devils had been seen among them lately, who were known by being better and quicker than the others." Two of the company landed here, but had nearly paid dear for their attempt.

At ancient Thebes, Mr. Bruce found nothing but the remains of four ancient temples; the account given of this celebrated city seems to be fabulous; the whole space of dry ground it could occupy, to support its myriads of horses and men, being a plain not more than three quarters of a mile broad. Many robbers, who are outlaws, infest this place, and live in caves: they were once extirpated, but have since recruited their numbers. In the sepulchres of Thebes, our traveller found great amusement: in the first of these he entered, he saw a prodigious sarcophagus, said to be

be either of Menes or Ossimandyas; it is sixteen feet high, ten long, and six broad, of one piece of red granite, and as such is supposed to be the finest vase in the world. In this sepulchre, on some pannels, he saw painted in fresco, three harps, which, whether we consider the elegance of their form, and the detail of their parts, shew to how great a perfection music must have arrived, and highly merit attention. They prove that every art necessary to the construction of these instruments was in its highest perfection. They are, Mr. Bruce observes, incontestable proofs that geometry, drawing, mechanics, and music, were at the greatest perfection when these instruments were made.

Arriving at Syene, a garrison town, Mr. Bruce was well received by the Aga. We shall conclude this extract with the ceremony of his reception, as it will at once shew us many particulars respecting this government.

I found the Aga sitting in a small kiosk, or closet, upon a stone bench, covered with carpets. As I was in no fear of him, I was resolved to walk according to my privileges, and as the meanest Turk would do before the greatest man in England; I sat down upon a cushion below him, after laying my hand on my breast, and saying in an audible voice, with great marks of respect, however, *Salem alicum!* to which he answered, without any of the usual difficulty, *Alicum salum! Peace be between us* is the salutation; *There is peace between us*, is the return.

After sitting down about two minutes, I again got up, and stood in the middle of the room before him, saying, I am bearer of a *hatéferiffé*, or royal mandate, to you, Mahomet Aga, and took the firman out of my bosom and presented it to him.

Upon this he stood upright, and all the rest of the people before sitting with him likewise; he bowed his head upon the carpet, then put the firman to his forehead, opened it, and pretended to read it; but he knew well the contents, and I believe, besides, he could neither read nor write

any language. I then gave him the other letters from Cairo, which he ordered his secretary to read in his ear.

All this ceremony being finished, he called for a pipe and coffee; I refused the first, as never using it, but I drank a dish of coffee, and told him, that I was bearer of a *confidential message* from Ali Bey, of Cairo, and wished to deliver it to him without witnesses, whenever he pleased. The room was accordingly cleared without delay, excepting his secretary, who was also going away, when I pulled him back by the cloaths, saying, "Stay if you please; we shall need you to write the answer." We were no sooner left alone, than I told the Aga, that, being a stranger, and not knowing the disposition of his people, or what footing they were on together, and being desired to address myself to him only, by the Bey, and our mutual friends at Cairo, I wished to put it in his power, as he pleased or not, to have witnesses of delivering the small *present* I had brought him from Cairo. The Aga seemed very sensible of this delicacy, and particularly desired me to take no notice to my landlord, the Schourbatchee, of any thing I had brought.

All this being over, and a confidence established with government, I sent his present by his own servant that night, under pretence of asking horses to the cataract next day. The message was returned to me that the horses were to be ready by six o'clock next morning. On the 21st, the Aga sent me his own horse, with mules and asses for my servants.

A DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF JAMAICA, with Remarks upon the Cultivation of the Sugar Cane throughout the different Seasons of the Year. By William Beckford, Esq. 2 Vols. Egertons. 8vo.

[Concluded.]

IN the second volume, the author gives a long and minute description of

of the method of cultivating that valuable plant the sugar cane, which he has interspersed with many particulars respecting rural economy in the West Indies, and the management of a plantation. To have any just idea of this part of the work, the whole must be read; we shall, therefore, forbear to make any extract from it, and give his observations on the picturesque and romantic scenes exhibited by the rivers in Jamaica.

It is impossible, says he, to describe the rich variety of the banks of the rivers in Jamaica: the docks that adorn their edges are of a prodigious and of a very picturesque expansion, and the depths of green by which they are distinguished afford a very striking contrast to the flowing element that reflects their images upon the depths below.

Some rivers sweep through rocks, and drill themselves a channel through arches and through caves; some are observed to divide contiguous mountains, some to flow with a more hasty course, and others to murmur with a less noisy progress, while others steal gently through the plains, and walk, with a seeming whisper, the projecting arches which oppose, with gentle violence, their dimpling lapse, and upon which the man of contemplation looks down from the pleasing elevation, and observes the ripples break upon the borders, while he sighs with sensibility to the plaintive murmurs of their sweetly-flowing and transparent tides.

Here the broad fig-tree rears its lofty head;
There the bright mirror of the stream is spread,
Which, am'rous of the deep o'erhanging shade,
Delays its course until the sun-beams fade.

The quiescent appearances of rivers in Jamaica, every attentive admirer of Nature must have frequently observed; and when he reclines in pensive thought beneath the embowering shadows of the cotton-tree, which, with all its pensile withes, and the fantastic weeds that hang and glow upon their extending branches, he feels the pleasure of melancholy arise in his mind, from a due contemplation of the surrounding, although a confined and sequestered scene.

He observes the waters, without a lapse or eddy, now hang with repose upon the neighbouring shores. The darkness of the over-hanging foliage that excludes the cheerful sun-beams, dispels not from his breast the plaintive thought; and though no zephyr shall ventilate the leaves, and

bear upon its wings his heavy sigh, yet he may drop a tear upon the peaceful element, which will be no sooner received than eternally forgotten.

He now endeavours to cheer his melancholy, and treads a silent path through the tangled briars and the matted grass, and behind the rushes, the docks, and the weeds, that hang with mournful penance over, and just wet their edges in, the placid stream, until a sudden ray of light salutes his exit from the gloom, illuminates the polished mirror that now appears to move, and through which the fish are seen to dart, or where the swarming flies occasion successive dimples as it flows, or at a distance represent the bubbles that a sudden shower occasions to arise.

The stream as yet scarce ripples on the land,

Though clouds reflected dance along the strand:

A transient zephyr steals amidst the shades;
And just awaken'd from the neighb'ring glades,

Bears on its balmy wings, to cheer the sense,

A show'r of soft, enliv'ning frankincense;
When lo! succeeding ruffles curl the tide,
Which murmur'ing flow, and kiss the river's side;

While, in its bright embrace, the flow'rs infold

Their hues, more rich than if the sands were gold.

The silver waters, dimpled o'er by flies
That show like drops of rain, in bubbles rise.

As he pursues his contemplative walk, and still continues to cast his looks upon the varying element, he sees it hurry on its course as he advances; he observes it flow along in larger reflections, which, as they catch the sun, discover the pebbles that shine like crystals below, or that appear like diamonds in full lustre upon the changing surface.

The waters are now spread into a deep and capacious basin, in which the mullets are seen to shape their wanton course, and which represent, if great things may descend to a comparison with small, the gold and silver fish that curiosity confines within the transparent bounds of a crystal vase, in which the little sportive tribes are fed Upon the sweeten'd cake, or crumbs of bread.

They are now constrained in their course to leave the depth, and urged on by a succeeding impulse, they spread themselves over a shallow bottom, which for a time confines the rush of waters, and prevents its curling precipitation down the white cascade.

They now have gained the summit, and seem to pause for a moment before they rush again: down falls at once the accumulated,

mulated, heavy, and resounding stream; the waters below seem to dread the impending fall, and shrink, as it were, from the weight of the inundation; the cataract descends with noise and fury; it forms a tremendous whirl-pool underneath, in which up-rooted trees of the most early growth and ponderous size, are instantly ingulphed, are buried for a time in the watery grave, and emerge at last at a considerable distance from their place of descent, and load with their contents the adjoining banks; it works its way under the rocks, and forms deep caverns at the bottom of the stream.

It now repents of the noise and confusion that it has occasioned, and seems to murmur like a froward child, whose anger is appeased, and who, in stifled blubberings and drowzy murmurs, resigns its little breath again to peace.

The river becomes at length confined, and roaring over a bed of rocks, it rather resembles a torrent than a stream: it is here that the patient angler is seated, and observes the mountain-mullets and the calapavres darting by like sudden gleams of light; his fly is hurried away by the impetuosity of the waters, the fishes are carried out of sight, to return no more, and the sportsman has time to brood over the disappointment he has sustained.

As silence succeeds to noise, and peace to trouble, so do the waters now flow on in a more gentle course; they slowly wander among the rushes, and with their freshening ripples awake their sighs.

Had the breeze been withheld, the bull-rush been mute,

We never had heard or the syrinx or flute.

The foregoing description of a river is faithfully drawn from what I have frequently seen, as it flows adjoining to a tract of land in which I have some little interest.

Our author does not think that the labour to which the negroes are subjected is so hard, notwithstanding the heat of the climate, as is generally represented.

An European, continues he, who would be almost dissolved, were he to work beneath the vertical ardours of a tropic sun, does not always consider, when he expresses his surprise that the negroes should be obliged to labour in such an intensity of heat, that the climate is congenial to their natural feelings, and that the careful benevolence of Providence has thickened their skins, to enable them to bear what would otherwise be insufferable: he is too apt to judge of their constitutions and feelings by his own, and does not seem to

consider that, if they were removed to England, and were obliged to abide the pelting of the hail, the fleeces of the snow, or the rigours of the frost, their powers would be useless, as their exertions would be numbed; and that *their* situation then, from a contrast of the region to that in which they were born, would be more deplorable and dangerous than *his* would be, if obliged to labour in the higher latitudes.

That the real work of the negroes is not so violent, nor continued so long in the day, without relaxation, as that of the peasants in England, may be collected from the interruptions which are occasioned by the frequent and heavy continuance of the rains which deluge the country for so many afternoons in the year, and from other accidental intermissions of labour, which may be derived from custom and from climate. Their exertions, out of crop, are seldom required for more than thirteen hours in the day; and the remainder of the four-and-twenty, the generality of them may consider as their own, and may dispose of them in any manner agreeable to their inclinations.

The following remarks on the heat in Jamaica, with which we shall conclude our extracts from this work, will enable our readers to form some idea of the nature of the climate.

The heat in Italy and Spain is often more oppressive than I have ever felt it in Jamaica; and I think that I have suffered as much from it in Switzerland, and in England, in the dog-days, (particularly once in an excursion through the sandy parts of Norfolk) as I have ever done in the West Indies, at the most inclement seasons of the year; and the custom of taking siestas or naps, in the afternoon, which so much prevails in the above-mentioned countries, is now universally exploded (excepting by old people, who are attached to ancient manners, and whose infirmities require repose) in those parts of the island with which I was at all acquainted.

When the north wind sets in with regularity, and continues to blow for any length of time, there are but few climates, during this agreeable period, that can be more pleasant and refreshing than that which is the subject of these pages: the sun is not, at that time, immediately vertical, and the intensity of its rays is allayed by flitting clouds and passing showers, which, while they serve to brace up the innervate system, at the same time exhibit a constant variety of effects upon that diversity of landscape which in

many

many parts, or indeed all over the island, is observed to glow with such vivid and enchanting splendor.

At this particular season the mornings and the evenings, more especially among the mountains, are not only temperate, but are often cold, inasmuch that a great coat is by no means a cumbersome appendage of dress; nor is a counterpane an article that can be dispensed with at night; while a fire, throughout the day, becomes not only a cheerful but an useful companion.

I have known it so chilly, even upon the plains, and in almost as hot a situation as any in the island, at the time of the blowing of this wind; that I have found exercise, solely taken for the purpose of warmth, not only comfortable but absolutely requisite; and at this particular season, and indeed at all times of the year, cloth coats are worn by the old and infirm, and are now preferred as dress by even the healthy and the young.

The heat of the nights in Jamaica, to speak from my own experience, I do not think at all insufferable; nor do I recollect that, during a residence of nearly thirteen years in the island, I was as many times incommoded by its oppression. A free passage is generally left for the admission of air; but, at some particular periods, the venetians are shut, and a counterpane, and sometimes a blanket, where before rejected, are then deemed comfortable at least, and are by some people thought to be indispensably necessary.

The air is so subtle, in some particular situations, that a flannel waistcoat cannot be well dispensed with, and the dews in the mountains are so heavy, and the fogs so impenetrably thick, that the loss of a great coat will be sensibly felt; and the different articles of dress that the traveller has occasion to wear in the morning become so cold and damp as to make the sensation of them uncomfortable to the body; and yet I could never learn that these latter circumstances were followed by sickness, although an exposure to the *first* is attended with danger.

The climate of the mountains is always temperate, compared to that of the plains; but even upon these it will likewise vary according to aspect; and indeed a regular change throughout all the gradations that different latitudes can occasion in moderate regions, short only of congelation, may be sought for, and found, in one or other of the districts of Jamaica, from intensity of heat to moderation of warmth, and at last to cold that will chill at least, although it may not be sufficiently penetrating to benumb.

Whether the mountains or the plains be the most healthy, can be only suggested

by partial experience; the population of the former being so very inconsiderable, compared to that of the latter, that longevity, ascertained by fact, cannot be with satisfaction determined.

There are many people who retire at particular seasons of the year from low-land situations to those that are more elevated; and as there are not many who make their constant residence all the year round upon the latter, it would be difficult to establish that as a fact which may, with better reason, be only considered as conjecture.

In the rainy periods I should prefer the mountains, notwithstanding the difficulties of access, and the inconvenience, if not the fatigue, of exercise: in the time of the norths I should choose the plains, as it may there be conveniently taken without either.

THE FAMILY HERBAL, OR DOMESTIC PHYSICIAN, enumerating, with accurate Descriptions, all the known Vegetables which are any Way remarkable for medical Efficacy; with an Account of their Virtues in the several Diseases incident to the human Frame: illustrated with Figures of the most remarkable Plants, accurately delineated and engraved. By William Meyrick, Surgeon. 8vo. 7s. Boards; coloured Copies, 14s. Birmingham: Printed for Baldwin, London.

IT is not easy to determine what the author's design could be in publishing the work before us: he professes indeed, and we ought to give him credit for such profession, to render the knowledge of medical plants easily attainable, and the administration of them easy and effectual. This is no small undertaking, and we were till now in the habit of supposing that, to accomplish it, a systematic knowledge of botany, and a regular introduction to the various branches of physic were necessary: the former is, however, reduced to a very small compass, and the latter is thought altogether unnecessary. Whether in this the author judges by his own success it does not become us, who are unacquainted with him, to determine; but it is impossible not to suspect

pect it, from some passages in his book. But first, as to the botanical part, by which *the knowledge of medical plants is to be rendered easily attainable.*

Who should suspect, after this, to find the plants *alphabetically* arranged? But, to give some appearance of system, we have what the author calls, "An arrangement, according to the system of Linnæus, of the several plants described in the work, with a brief explanation of the circumstances on which the different classes and orders of that system depend." This is a kind of catalogue, disposed according to the classes and orders of that celebrated naturalist, the explanation of each of which takes up about a line and a half. After going through the description, or rather enumeration, of chives and pointals, without explaining what is meant by either,* the class Cryptogamia is easily dispatched, under the name of "Plants whose flowers are inconspicuous, the orders 1. Ferns. III. and thongs," by which the author conceives "little difficulty can ever arise in determining whether any plant intended to be made use of is the identical one there recommended."

But when the plant is discovered, it must be admitted nothing more is wanted than to discover the disease, the applications of the remedy being so perspicuous and unequivocal, that if the author has really found all the efficacy he ascribes to some of the plants, his diligence may amply compensate for his want of method. For instance, who till now, ever conceived the following numerous virtues to exist in *Polygonum Bisorta*, snake-weed?

"The root is of a *binding* nature, and may be used to advantage both externally and inwardly, where ever astringency is required, as for incontinence of urine, immoderate menses, bleeding wounds, spitting of blood, the bloody flux, and other fluxes of the belly: it is also of singular efficacy in a soft, spongy

"state of the gums, attended with looseness of the teeth and foreness in the mouth. Dried and reduced to powder, or boiled in wine, and taken pretty freely, it prevents miscarriage, helps ruptures, dissolves coagulated blood, from falls, blows, &c. and kills worms in children."

If physiologists should be at a loss to determine how *internal* remedies should produce this effect on extravasated, coagulated blood, perhaps their wonder may encrease at hearing that the carraway seeds, bruised and made into a poultice, take away black and blue marks occasioned by falls and bruises, and are good in hysteric fits. The author should have told us *where* the poultice, in this latter case, is to be applied. But what is this to the mechanical or attractive powers of betony, which *draws thorns, splinters, and other bodies, out of the flesh*? But this is still nothing to *acanthus mollis*, (bear's breech) which is not only serviceable in all pulmonary complaints, strangury, nephritic and calculous disorders, but cures *erosions of the bowels*.

If some of our readers, who have been less successful, should be induced to doubt our author's veracity, we have only to quote a single passage more, which will convince them of the possibility of all this, and more too.

"The juice of the leaves (of artichoke) or a strong decoction of the roots, is powerfully diuretic, and of great efficacy in the jaundice and dropsy, which will frequently yield to this medicine, without any other assistance but the Divine blessing."

With this assistance, we can never doubt of success in any remedy; but the business of a physician is to discover what plants it has pleased Providence originally to endue with a power of proving serviceable to particular diseases, and not to wait for its immediate influence.

* There is subjoined a kind of glossary, in which these terms are so generally and indistinctly explained, as to puzzle the uninformed botanist more than ever.

P O E T R Y.

AVRA AND SERINA:

AN ELEGIAC DIALOGUE.

Thy woes in deep affliction would be mine;
Sigh for each sigh I'd give, and mingle
tears with thine.

IN leisure hours, when ev'ry care expir'd,
Two nymphs from town together oft
retired;
When setting suns withdrew their sum-
mer's heat,
And cooler hours succeeded their retreat;
Where rural scenes a charming prospect
made,
Pleas'd with each other's company they
stray'd
Till the pale moon commenc'd her cir-
cling race,
And peaceful night approach'd with so-
lemn pace.
When once the last remains of day were
gone,
As slow with thoughtful steps they wan-
der'd on,
With pensive sadness Serina express'd
The soft emotions of her troubled breast:
By nature and by friendship near ally'd,
With kind affection Avra thus reply'd.

SERINA.

How calm retirement public life excels
With those we love where gentle quiet
dwells,
Where ev'ry anxious thought is hush'd to
rest,
And tender feelings warm the social breast,
Which oft we know these calm abodes en-
dear,
As in our private hours we linger here.
When hearts congenial to each other tend,
As each reveals itself unto its friend,
How those we've lov'd in dear remem-
brance rise!
How fond affection to its object flies!
And when alone, unconscious of the cause,
O how the tender thought to him with-
draws.

AVRA.

Methinks experience can these truths
attest,
Or why with tears so feelingly express'd?
I fear some deep concern, some cause con-
ceal'd;
Now loads thy heart, in secret silence
veil'd;
Come then, the whole with confidence
declare;
Why thus unkind; why rob me of my
share?

SERINA.

These fears dismiss, for from no hid-
den cause
My deep distress its painful sorrow draws;
Yet oft these melancholy thoughts revolve,
And all my heart in tenderness dissolve,
For that deserving youth's untimely doom,
Whom cruel Fate snatch'd to the silent
tomb;
Whose early worth full well my bosom
knew,
Nor could withhold th' esteem to merit
due.
With real affection he his suit obtain'd,
And the return of equal passion gain'd:
But oh! when thus united, thus o'erjoy'd,
And with fond hopes of future bliss em-
ploy'd,
His native land and me he must forsake:
And o'er the deep a dang'rous voyage
make.
What sympathizing sorrow then arose
In each full bosom, soften'd with its woes!
Till far, alas! upon the sea retir'd,
Beneath its foaming billows he expir'd!
And I, unhappy maid, was left alone,
My loss, my hapless passion to bemoan.
And though by time with which all things
decay,
By slow degrees th' impression wears away
Its soft emotions still my breast inspires,
While oft the pensive thought to him re-
tires;
With wonted tenderness my bosom glows,
And tears unfeign'd from conscious sor-
row flows.

AVRA.

Thy troubles wound this heart, that sunk
in grief
Has oft to thine withdrawn to seek relief;
Now longing pity sighs in vain to give
That comfort which thy sorrows can't re-
ceive.
What troubles, crosses, and perplexing
fears,
Attend our passage through this vale of
tears!—
A tender wish had long my mind possess'd,
That thought at length its fonder wishes
blest;
But these alas! the treach'rous youth de-
ceived,
And I his artful tale too soon believ'd.

His

His first attempts, a kind respect obtain'd,
 He won my heart, and its affections
 gain'd,
 When this at last the false deceiver
 knew,
 Far from my eyes for ever he withdrew.
 Contentment, peace, and joy with him
 retir'd;
 Each pleasing motion of the soul expir'd,
 And anguish fill'd my heart, and deep de-
 spair
 With each tumultuous passion kindled
 there;
 Till health impair'd, their innate force
 confest,
 And nature sunk, beneath its woes op-
 press'd.
 Excuse me if the whole I ne'er disclose,
 Nor all the weakness of my heart expose,
 Which reason, time and absence have sub-
 du'd,
 And wonted peace and liberty renew'd.

SERENA.

For wife and happy ends each bosom
 knows
 With mutual warmth where pure affec-
 tion glows,
 And minds congenial in its bonds ally'd
 Have Prudence and Discretion for their
 guide.
 May our affections never be abus'd;
 Perhaps 'tis best their objects are refus'd.
 Their cross with patience let us undergo,
 Nor e'er pervert them to the source of
 woe;
 But wait till happier offers may succeed,
 If such by bounteous Heav'n should be
 decreed.

I. T.

ON A ROBIN RED-BREAST BEING
 FOUND IN THE GAOL CHAPEL AT
 MERTFORD, HERTS, JUNE 27.

AH! gentle stranger, take thy flight
 From these drear mansions, where the
 light

But dimly penetrates the gloom,
 Faint image of our future tomb.
 Say, why so musical thy throat;
 Why lengthen thus thy cheerful note
 Mid horrors wild, the prison's light,
 Where wretches doom'd t'eternal night
 Rattle their adamant chains,
 Corroding links, corroding pains;
 Where Melancholy, dreadful foe
 To all our comforts here below,
 Preys unperceiv'd upon the mind,
 And prompts in death relief to find;
 Where Echo, in her airy round,
 Repeats the pris'ner's doleful sound,
 Recounts his woes his griefs again,
 Through ev'ry dungeon, ev'ry den;

Till wan Despair deforms his mien,
 And Phrenzy thuts the guilty scene.
 Or say sweet bird, domestic friend,
 Is it thy cheering voice to lend,
 To heal the guilty wretch's sinart,
 And sooth the self condemned heart;
 To pour sweet angel Mercy's ray,
 And wipe repentant tears away.
 Gentlest the feather'd choir among,
 Sweet comforter prolong thy song,
 Teach them like thee, in grateful lays
 To celebrate their Maker's praise.

J. MOORE, Ordinary.

ON SEEING THE FIRST SWALLOW IN
 THE SPRING.

WELCOME, dear swallow, to thy well-
 known nest,
 Preserv'd for thy return with anxious
 care!

Well pleas'd I saw thee cleave the yield-
 ing air,
 And haste to be again my cheerful guest.

Oh! could my verse ungrateful man per-
 suade,

To pay the tribute which thy labors
 claim:

No ruthless hand thy dwelling should in-
 vade,

Nor at thy life the murderous tube
 should aim.

Thou on the busy wing, at early morn,
 Shall dart, like lightning, through the
 wide expanse,

When noxious insects float in mazy
 dance,

And shed their poison on the with'ring
 corn.

From such by thee reliev'd, our fields re-
 joice;

The flowers unfold their variegated
 hues.

And shall we greet thee with unfriendly
 voice,

Or the warm covert of the roof refuse?

Shall the rude African the Stork adore,
 That frees him from the reptiles of the
 Nile?

And shall we drive thee from a thankless
 shore,

Regardless of thy free, unpurchas'd
 toil?

Welcome, dear Swallow, to thy well-
 known nest,

Here sit secure, and pour thy artless
 song;

In safety here thy weary pinions rest,
 And soothed with lullabies thy callow
 young.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY REGISTER.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, May 10.

HEARD counsel on the Strathallan Peerage claim.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, May 10.

Sir Benjamin Hammet, after stating the absurd and shocking tenor of the law, as it now stands, respecting the punishment of women convicted of high or petty treason, that almost every Sheriff exercised the discretion of dispensing with the literal execution of the sentence, and that doubts had arisen how far such exercise of discretion was consistent with the Sheriff's oath, moved for leave to bring in a bill to alter the sentence of burning women attainted and convicted of certain crimes, and to substitute, in lieu thereof, the punishment awarded on men for similar offences.

Mr. Sheridan, conceiving that the bill did not go far enough, recommended to extend it to all cases in which the punishment of burning was awarded.

Mr. M. A. Taylor wished that the Judges might be previously consulted, as a bill of the same purport had been thrown out, because the Judges had not been previously consulted. Leave was given.

The order of the day being read for the House to resolve into a Committee of Supply, and the statement of the Georgia claims ordered to be referred to it,

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that after the Address that had been voted to his Majesty, there could be no difficulty about the propriety of following up the professions contained in that Address; and moved a vote of credit for one million, to enable his Majesty, in the event of war, which he was still willing to hope would not be necessary, to make such augmentations to his forces, by sea and land, as the exigencies of the case might require.

The resolution was agreed to. *new con.*

The House resolved itself into a Committee on the Lottery bill.

A clause was introduced, subjecting to a penalty of fifty pounds every printer of a newspaper who shall insert any advertisement of schemes, or chances, dependent on the drawing, from persons not licensed to deal in lottery tickets.

Mr. Sheridan said, that as the printers had now something like a rule to go by, he should not oppose the clause.

Another clause was introduced, subjecting every person convicted before a Justice of the Peace, on the oath of one witness, of distributing bills containing lottery advertisements, to three months imprisonment.

This was opposed by Mr. Sheridan, Mr. M. A. Taylor, Mr. Hufsey, and Mr. Wyndham, as increasing improperly the summary jurisdiction of the magistrate, as subjecting ignorant persons, who might offend unintentionally, to a severe punishment; and finally as inadequate to any useful purpose.

It was supported by Mr. Rose and Sir Joseph Mawbey; and the Committee divided.

Ayes	—	101
Noes	—	37

Majority for the clause 64.

The remainder of the bill was gone through, and the House adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, May 11.

The order of the day for the third reading of the Post Horse Duty bill being received, Mr. Sheridan again moved his clause, to oblige the farmers of the duty to declare upon oath the annual produce of their district, which after some debate was rejected without a division.

The report of the Committee of Supply was brought up, and the resolutions were read and agreed to.

Mr. Burke made his promised motions respecting the trial of Mr. Hastings.

1st. "That this House, taking into consideration the interruptions occasioned by the occupations of the Judges, and of the Court of Peers, as also other impediments which have occurred or may occur in the course of the trial, doth, without meaning to abandon the truth or importance of the said charges, authorise the managers of their said impeachment to insist only upon such, and so many of the said charges, as shall appear to them the most conducive to the obtaining speedy and effectual justice against the said Warren Hastings."

His second motion was:

"That the Commons of Great Britain in Parliament assembled, from a regard to their own honour, and from the duty which they owe to all the Commons of Great Britain, in whose name, as well as their own, they act in the public prosecutions

cutions by them carried on before the House of Lords, are bound to persevere in their impeachment against Warren Hastings, Esq. late Governor General of Bengal, until judgment may be obtained upon the most important articles in the same."

The first motion was agreed to *nem. con.* and the question being put on the second, the House divided, when there appeared

For it	—	48
Against it	—	31

Majority 17

The other orders of the day were postponed, and the house adjourned

HOUSE OF LORDS.

WEDNESDAY, May 12.

The Lord Chief Baron delivered the opinion of the Judges on the Strathallan Peerage claim, on which their Lordships resolved, that Andrew Drummond, Esq. has no claim to the title and dignity of Viscount Strathallan.

The order of the day being read for the second reading of the bill for preventing delays at elections, Lord Londale moved to leave out the word now, and insert this day three months.

The amendment was supported by Lord Kinnaird, and opposed by Lord Delaval and Earl Stanhope.

On a division the numbers were,

Contents	—	31
Not Contents	—	10

Majority 21

Heard Counsel on the second reading of the Tobacco bill. Adjourned the farther consideration till Friday, when evidence will be heard. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

WEDNESDAY, May 12.

Mr. Grey moved that an humble address be presented to his Majesty, that he would be graciously pleased to give directions to the proper officer to lay before the House a copy of the communication, with the date thereof, as made by the Ambassador of his Catholic Majesty, by authority of his court, and alluded to in his Majesty's message, relative to the capture of the ships in Nootka Sound.

Mr. Lambton seconded the motion, and after a long debate, in which the principal speakers were Mr. Wyndham, Mr. Rolle, Mr. Fox, Lord Mulgrave, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the House divided, when the numbers were,

For the motion	121
Against it	123

Majority 92

The House then adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

FRIDAY, May 14.

The Chief Baron delivered the opinion of the Judges on the question referred to them on the Writ of Error between Craig and Kinlock.

Upon the motion of the Lord Chancellor, the Judgment of the King's Bench was affirmed.

Proceeded on the examination of evidence on the Tobacco Bill.

After which the House adjourned to Monday.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

FRIDAY, May 14.

The House having resolved into a Committee,

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, after stating the loss sustained by the Penn family, which the Commissioners estimated at 500,000. and the meritorious services of their ancestor, said, that 120,000. had been voted as a compensation for the rights of which they were deprived by the State of Pennsylvania, to be paid by instalments; but that 11,000. only of that sum had yet been paid; and that it was doubtful whether the whole, or any considerable part of the remainder, ever would be paid. It was extremely difficult to say, how far the munificence of the British nation ought to extend in the way of compensation for so great a loss; and he submitted to the Committee, whether an annuity of 4000. to the heirs and descendants of William Penn, Esq. would not be such a compensation, as it became the generosity of the public to bestow, and more respectful to the memory of their ancestor, than a sum of money.

A conversation of some length took place, on the proportion of this annuity to the sum granted to the family of Mr. Harford, compared with the respective losses; after which the sum of 4000. was agreed to.

Mr. Sheridan moved that the East India Company be directed to pay and discharge the sum of 300,000. borrowed in Exchequer Bills, on or before the first of January next, so that the public might be no longer security for the same.

After some debate,

Mr. Sheridan moved for leave to withdraw his motion, after which he moved, "That it appears to this House that the said sum of 300,000. advanced to the East India Company, in pursuance of the said Act, has not been repaid."

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, without any preface, moved the previous question, and after

after some illustration, the House divided, when the numbers were,

For the original motion	39
Against it	70

Majority	31
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The House then adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, May 14.

The Earl of Kinnoul (Lord Hay) rose, and after a speech of considerable length, moved, that an humble address be presented to his Majesty, that he would be graciously pleased to give directions, that there be laid before the House the dates of the communications made by the Spanish Minister relative to the capture of the ships in Nootka Sound, referred to in his Majesty's message.

Lord Walsingham opposed the motion as improper, while a negotiation was pending on the subject.

When the House divided there appeared

For the motion	33
Against it	52

Majority	19
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Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, May 14.

The bill for the relief of the coasting trade was read a first time, and ordered to be printed.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer presented a message from the King, stating that his Majesty being desirous of conferring a mark of his special favour on Dr. Willis, by granting him a pension of 1000*l.* for twenty-one years; and not being able to do this without the assistance of Parliament, recommended the same to the consideration of the House. Ordered that the message be referred to a Committee of the whole House to-morrow.

Leave was given to bring in a bill for the encouragement of new settlers in his Majesty's American Colonies.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

THURSDAY, May 20.

Proceeded farther in the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. and adjourned it till Tuesday se'nnight.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THURSDAY, May 20.

Mr. Francis said, the resolutions he intended to move were founded so clearly on Vol. V.

the account on the table, that it was necessary only to state them. They could neither be supported nor refuted by argument. He appealed to the general feelings of the House; more especially to those gentlemen, who, valuing themselves on the great stake they possessed in the country, thought they had a right to claim a superior degree of independence—although he was by no means ready to admit, that independence was the natural consequence of a great estate, any more than that generosity was the consequence of riches;—to those, however, and the House in general, he appealed, whether the actual residence of an Ambassador at the Court of Madrid for thirteen months in the course of seven years—whether the payment of fifteen thousand pounds to Lord Chesterfield for living two years at Paris, and of seventeen thousand to Lord Auckland for thirteen months residence at the Court of Madrid, were facts to be approved of, and how far it was incumbent on the House to notice such facts, when brought regularly before them. So far, at least, the ends of economy had been attended to, that although thirty-five thousand pounds had been paid by the public for the service of thirteen months, fourteen or fifteen shillings had been saved by refusing to print the account. The resolutions he intended to move were,

That it appears to this House that, since the 12th of March, 1783, there have been four appointments of Ambassadors from his Majesty to the Catholic King.

That it appears to this House that, in the same period an Ambassador on the part of his Majesty has resided at the Court of Spain thirteen months only.

That it appears to this House that, in the same period, an expence has been incurred on account of Ambassadors appointed to the Court of Spain, amounting to 35,60*l.* 7*s.* 10*d.* though one of the said Ambassadors received no part of the appointments.

That an humble address be presented to his Majesty, to represent to his Majesty the contents of the preceding resolutions, and humbly to beseech his Majesty, that he will be graciously pleased to give such directions, as his Majesty shall think fit, in order to provide for the due performance in future of the duties and services belonging to the office of Ministers appointed by the Crown to reside in foreign Courts.

He concluded with moving the first resolution.

Mr. Burgefs concluded a short speech, with moving the previous question, which was afterwards changed in a motion for reading the other order of the day. The question being put, the House divided, when there appeared

K

For

For the order of the day 95
Against it — 59

Majority 36

Read a third time, and passed, the bill for empowering the British Governors abroad to respite the sentences of Convicts in certain cases, after which the House adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

FRIDAY, May 21.

Read a first time, the million vote of credit bill, and the bill for altering the sentences of women required by law to be burned. Heard farther evidence on the Tobacco bill. Adjourned till Wednesday.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

FRIDAY, May 21.

General Burgoyne rose, and after a short speech, in which he accused an Honorable Gentleman, *Major Scott*, of publishing a libel, reflecting on the honor and justice of the House of Commons, made two motions, the substance of which was as follows:

"That it appears to this House, that it is against the law and usage of Parliament, and a high breach of the privileges of this House, to write or publish, or cause to be written or published, any scandalous or libellous paper, reflecting on the honor and justice of the House."

"That John Scott, Esq. a Member of this House, and late Agent for Warren Hastings, Esq. now under a prosecution by order of this House, has written and published a libellous paper, reflecting on the honor and justice of the House, and the Managers of the said prosecution; and is thereby guilty of a gross and scandalous violation of his duty as a Member of Parliament, and a breach of the privileges of this House."

He then delivered in the paper complained of, which was read by the Clerk.

The *Speaker* stated the order of proceeding to be, that when a charge was brought against any Member, he was first to be heard, before any question was put, and then to withdraw.

Major Scott said, no man felt more respect for the privileges of the House than he did; if he had been misled into a breach of them, which he did not think he had been, he had been misled by great authority. The precedents quoted were taken from times in which it was a breach of privilege to publish any thing purport-

ing to be a proceeding of the House, and could not apply to the present, when the proceedings of the House were published with impunity. He entered into a long recapitulation and defence of the contents of his letter, and quoted passages from a speech of Mr. Burke's, printed in 1785, from Mr. Sheridan's comparative statement of the two India bills, and from General Burgoyne's letters to his constituents at Preston, all of which, he contended, were stronger, and more objectionable than any in his letter. He disavowed all intention of calumniating; said he wrote the letter without communication on the subject of it with any person; and that although he had been the agent of Mr. Hastings, while in India, he had no connection with him or his affairs since his return to England, but what arose from friendship and affection.

The Major having withdrawn, the first resolution was put and carried.

It was then suggested, that before putting the second, the paper delivered in and read ought to be voted false and scandalous; and a resolution was drawn up to that effect.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer concurred in the general principles laid down respecting the privileges of the House; but said, that before taking up matters which they had been accustomed, perhaps improperly, to overlook, it would be proper to take some time to consider the paper complained of, that they might be sure that they proceeded to vindicate their privileges on good grounds; and moved to adjourn the debate till Thursday next.

Mr. Fox said, the House was departing from no general practice: they had lately taken notice of several libels. He had no objection to adjourning the debate, and hoped it would meet with a full discussion in a full House.

Mr. Sheridan said, there were several other papers which it might be necessary to bring to Major Scott's recollection, and therefore he wished for an opportunity of asking, whether or not the Major would avow them?

Mr. Burke said, he had been so much the object of the libels in question, that he did not believe he should either speak, or vote, on the subject.

The motion of adjournment was agreed to.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

WEDNESDAY, May 26.

Several bills were brought up from the Commons, and read a first time. Adjourned.

HOUSE

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

WEDNESDAY, May 26.

In a Committee of the whole House went through Dr. Willis's pension bill.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that he had formerly given notice of his intention of bringing forward some proposition for the relief of the subscribers to the Tontine. It had originally been suggested to him, that to extend the time for nominating lives, would have answered the purpose; but, upon further consideration, he had abandoned that idea. When the bill was originally introduced, Gentlemen might recollect, that it was stated as a bill of experiment, and from the success of private Tontines, it was reasonably expected, that it might have been of considerable advantage to the public. Experience, however, had not justified that expectation; for the shares were not now marketable, but at a considerable discount.

In order, therefore, to prevent ruinous consequences to individuals, without prejudice to the public, he proposed to the Committee, that the holder of every share of £100, shall have an option of transferring such share to another species of stock, which, as being more marketable, and less liable to fluctuation, would, in his opinion, prove a very considerable relief to the subscribers, while at the same time it might prove of some advantage to the public. The kind of stock to which he alluded was the long annuity; and taking the calculation from the average price after the last twelve months, he believed it would be found, that an annuity of 4l. 5s. for sixty-nine years, would be a fair price of every such share. He had also to propose, for the benefit of those who might chuse to retain their original subscriptions in the Tontine, that the Commissioners of the Treasury should be empowered, to nominate lives, of which the public would have the benefit of survivorship in the same manner as individuals.

After some conversation between Mr. Sheridan and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the resolutions were agreed to. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, May 31.

Mr. Douglas having, in a very able speech, summed up the evidence brought against the Tobacco bill, the bill was read a second time, and the Lord Chancellor having put the question, that the bill be committed, a debate ensued. As the sub-

ject has been so fully discussed in the House of Commons, we shall make no apology to our readers for not entering into the detail.

Earl Fitzwilliam spoke against the principle of the bill, which, in his opinion, would, in the end, deprive the country of the revenue arising from the superior skill of the English manufacturer, by giving the exciseman an opportunity of discovering the secrets of the trade. His Lordship concluded with moving, "That it be an instruction to the Committee to introduce a clause, or clauses, for repealing so much of the said act as related to the survey of excise on Tobacco, while under the operation of the manufacturer."

The Duke of Richmond opposed the motion, and was of opinion, that before so important an alteration was made, the bill ought to have a fair trial.

Lord Viscount Stormont, in a long and able speech, in which he went over a great variety of matter, argued against the bill both in its principle, and in the detail.

The Marquis Townshend remarked on the hardships to which the labourer and the manufacturer were subjected by the Excise Laws. But if the motion was carried, it must be fatal to the present bill, and he feared there was not time to pass a new one. While the country was perhaps on the eve of a war, he would not weaken the hands of Government, by withdrawing any part of the public revenue, let who would be Minister.

The question being put, the House divided.

Contents	-	-	30
Proxies	-	-	3-33
Not contents	-	-	43
Proxies	-	-	12-55

Majority against the motion 22

The bill was then ordered to be committed. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, May 26.

Read a third time and passed, the Slave carrying bill.

Agreed to several amendments made by the Lords in private bills. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, June 1.

Read a third time and passed, the Yukatan Trade, the Loyalists, and the American Settlers bill. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, June 1.

The order of the day being read for the farther consideration of the Corn bill,

The Marquis of Graham said, that although the bill was founded on former bills, and had in effect been under consideration for two Sessions of Parliament, yet, as several Gentlemen appeared to have objections to the detail, the system being pretty generally agreed upon, he thought it would be better to postpone the bill to another Session of Parliament, and, in the mean time, to pass a short bill to prevent exportation, and encourage importation.

He then moved that the further consideration of the bill be deferred for three months, which was agreed to. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

WEDNESDAY, June 2.

Proceeded farther on the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

WEDNESDAY, June 2.

The report from the Committee on the Tontine bill was brought up, and a conversation of considerable length took place, supported by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Fox, Mr. Hussey, and Mr. Sheridan.

It was admitted on both sides, that the original subscribers were entitled in equity to such relief as the House could give, without entailing any additional burthen on the public; but it was felt as a difficulty that the situation of those who had purchased shares on the faith of an act of Parliament ought not to be changed in any respect, whether for the better or for the worse, without their express consent; and this it was impossible to avoid altogether, although various amendments were suggested and adopted, to make the difference as slight as possible.

The report was at length agreed to, and the bill ordered, if engrossed, to be read a third time to-morrow. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

THURSDAY, June 3.

Lord Rawdon said, a circumstance had occurred, disgraceful to the military character, and which, therefore, as a military man, he felt it his duty to state to

their Lordships. A Noble Lord (Lord Hawkesbury) had been insulted on his way to the House, by the guards stationed in the streets, in the most gross and wanton manner; and it was his sincere wish that the noble Lord would state the outrage to their Lordships in the way of complaint, and claim the privilege to which he was entitled.

Lord Hawkesbury said, that coming down Parliament-street, he saw a loaded cart permitted quietly to pass; that his carriage, on attempting to pass the same way, was stopped by the guards, and peremptorily ordered to turn back; that he told them who he was, and his right to pass on; after which, with much abusive language, they struck his horses and servants, and threatened to proceed to the extremity of violence, if they attempted to go on; that his servants defended themselves; a scuffle ensued, in which blows were given and received on both sides, till he ordered his servants to turn back. The outrage was of such a nature as could not be passed over; and he wished to hear the sentiments of the noble Lord on the Woolack respecting the mode of proceeding.

The Lord Chancellor said, the most proper mode would be to enquire, first, the names of the officers on guard; and next, what orders they had given to their men. Their Lordships would then have a fair opportunity of comparing the conduct of the soldiers with their orders, and of deciding with whom the fault lay. He himself would make the proper enquiries, and report the result to their Lordships. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THURSDAY, June 3.

In a Committee went through the temporary Corn bill. A clause was added, giving certain powers, for regulating importation and exportation, to the King in Council.

Read a third time, and passed, the Coasting Trade bill. Adjourned till Saturday.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

SATURDAY, June 5.

The Lords met this day, and proceeded on the bills before them without any debate.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

SATURDAY, June 5.

Read a third time and passed, the temporary Corn bill. Read a first and second time,

time, and went through in a Committee, the new Lottery bill. Ordered the report to be received on Monday. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

MONDAY, June 7.

On the motion of the Duke of Leeds, the third reading of the Tobacco bill was postponed for three months; of course a new bill must be brought in.

A message was sent to the Commons, that the Lords would proceed further on the trial of Warren Hastings, Esq. on Wednesday.

The Lottery bill was brought up from the Commons, read a first time, and ordered to be read a second time to-morrow. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

MONDAY, June 7.

Mr. H. Hobart brought up the report from the Committee on the Lottery bill, which was received. The bill was read a third time, and passed. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

TUESDAY, June 8.

In a Committee on the Coasting Trade bill,

The Lord Chancellor observed, that, although the intention of the bill was laudable, many of the clauses were carelessly or ignorantly drawn; and it was the wish of those who promoted the bill to let it stand over till another Session.

Received from the Commons, and read a first time, the new Tobacco bill.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY, June 8.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer brought in a new Tobacco bill, which was read a first and second time, &c. and passed, and sent up to the Lords. It differs from the former only in the title, and by omitting part of the preamble. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

WEDNESDAY, June 9.

Several bills were read a third time and passed: among them the Rape Seed

bill, the Tontine bill, Consolidated Fund bill, and Lottery bill. Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

WEDNESDAY, June 9.

At four o'clock the Speaker returned from the High Court of Parliament, and soon after the House was resumed.

A message from the Lords was received, stating their Lordships had agreed to the following bills without any amendment, the Tontine bill, Rape Seed bill, and Consolidated Fund bill.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

THURSDAY, June 10.

His Majesty came in state to the House, gave the Royal assent to several public and private bills, and made the following most gracious speech to both Houses of Parliament:

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

The necessary public business being now concluded, I think it right to put an end to this Session of Parliament.

I have not hitherto received the answer of the Court of Spain to the representation which I have directed to be made, at that Court, in support of the dignity of my crown, and of the interests of my people. I continue to entertain the strongest desire for the maintenance of peace on just and honourable grounds; but, under the present circumstances, I feel it indispensably necessary to proceed with expedition and vigour in those preparations, the objects of which have already received your unanimous concurrence.

The assurances and conduct of my allies, on this interesting occasion, have manifested in the most satisfactory manner their determination to fulfil the engagements of the existing treaties; and I trust that our mutual good understanding and concert will be productive of the happiest effects in the present conjuncture of affairs in Europe.

Gentlemen of the House of Commons;

I return you my particular thanks for the readiness with which you granted the supplies for the current service, and for your unanimity and dispatch in enabling me to take those measures which the present crisis has rendered necessary.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

As I think it may be of material convenience that the election of a new Parliament should take place without delay, it is my intention forthwith to give directions for dissolving the present, and for calling a new Parliament. But, in signifying

tying to you this intention, I cannot omit to assure you of the deep and grateful sense which I must ever entertain of that affectionate and unshaken loyalty, that uniform and zealous regard for the true principles of our invaluable Constitution, and that unremitting attention to the happiness and prosperity of my people, which have invariably directed all your proceedings.

The rapid increase of our Manufactures, Commerce, and Navigation, the additional protection and security afforded to the distant possessions of the Empire, the provisions for the good government of India, the improvement of the public revenue, and the establishment of a permanent system for the gradual reduction of the National Debt, have furnished the best proofs of your resolution in encountering the difficulties with which you had to contend, and of your steadiness and perseverance in those measures which were best adapted to promote the essential and lasting interest of my dominions.

The loyalty and public spirit, the in-

dultry and enterprise of my subjects have seconded your exertions. On their sense of the advantages which they at present experience, as well as on their uniform and affectionate attachment to my Person and Government, I rely for a continuance of that harmony and confidence, the happy effects of which have so manifestly appeared during the present Parliament, and which must at all times afford the surest means of meeting the exigencies of war, or of cultivating with increasing benefit the blessings of peace.

Then the Lord Chancellor, by his Majesty's command, prorogued the Parliament to Tuesday, the third day of August next.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THURSDAY, June 10.

The Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod summoned the House to attend his Majesty in the Upper Chamber of Parliament, and the House attended accordingly.

THEATRICAL INTELLIGENCE.

THEATRE Royal, Haymarket.—An after piece, called *Try Again*, was produced at this Theatre, which, being destitute of every theatrical requisite except bustle, does not deserve to be noticed; its author has not thought proper to make himself known, and after having been performed for six nights, it seems designed to be laid on the shelf.

To this succeeded a new Opera, called *New Spain, or Love in Mexico*.

The characters are,

Don Lopez	Mr. Ryder
Don Garcia	Mr. Waterhouse
Don Juan	Mr. Davies
Almanock	Mr. Bannister
Zempoalla	Mr. Cubit
Secretary	Mr. R. Palmer
Fabio	Mr. Bannister, jun.
Leonora	Mrs. Goodall
Julia	Mrs. Iliffe

Flora	Miss Fontenelle
Ulah	Mrs. Edwards
Ilcagli	Mrs. Bannister

The author of this Opera is said to be a Mr. Scawen. The fable is inconsistent, and inaccurately told. To enter into a critical examination of *Love in Mexico* would be unfair; as the great requisites of a new Opera are pleasing music and good performers, both which this piece possesses.

It is written, however, in a pleasing style, the dialogue is nervous and chaste, free from that low buffoonery which has lately disgraced the stage. Three of the women were in breeches, but one of them, Mrs. Iliffe, was extremely embarrassed; the others, Mrs. Goodall and Miss Fontenelle, were very beautiful. There were some few exceptional passages, which were curtailed on the second representation.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Genoa, May 30.

GOVERNMENT having received accounts from different parts that the Barbary corsairs increased in our seas, and were of great detriment to trade and navigation, have ordered a frigate to sail for the Levant, to drive the Barbarians thence.

Government has sent ten patents to different Captains, who are each of them

to form their own companies, which are to consist of an hundred men each.

We learn from Cagliari, that a Barbarian vessel having been discovered in the waters of Taccolara, two armed shallops were sent out to take her, which they did, and it is said they found on board the corsair 21,000 sequins, besides a vast quantity of valuable merchandize.

Smyrna,

Smyrna, May 21. Intelligence has been received here that the Russian Squadron failed on the 15th instant from Zia, leaving behind on the island all the Albanese troops, to take care of the fortifications; that on the 16th they fell in with the Turkish fleet, between the Cape d'Oro and the Island of Andros; that Major Lambro, the Russian commander, began the action with nine vessels against eighteen of the Turks; that on the 18th the latter were joined by seven Algerine xebecs, who, with great courage, attacked the Russians, killed a great number of them, sunk two or three of their vessels, and obliged two to run aground on the Island of Andros, where the Russians set fire to them, in order that they might not fall into the hands of the enemy; that Major Lambro took to his boat, with all his officers, and set fire to his frigate; that the Major, who was wounded in the action, then embarked in a small vessel of his squadron, passed by Micone, where he staid three hours, and proceeded afterwards to Cirigo; and that two other small vessels of the Russian squadron also made their escape.

Trieste, May 26. The differences between the Court of Naples and the Republic of Venice being amicably arranged, the Chevalier Micheroux is ordered to return to Venice.

Leghorn, May 28. Our seas swarm with Barbary corsairs, who generally appear together in great numbers. A Neapolitan bark was attacked by an Algerine xebec not far from the shore of St. Vincent, near the cannon of the fortress. The corsair, however, still hovered about, and would have taken the bark at last, but for the appearance of one of the Pope's galleys, which did all in its power to come up with the xebec; and from what we can learn from the master of a ship who arrived here, and who heard a loud cannonading, we conclude the Algerine is either taken or sunk.

Madrid, June 1. Mr. Frazer having taken the character of Plenipotentiary, during the absence of the Minister, and Mr. Fitzherbert being soon expected, make it hoped that matters between the two Courts will be made up without a rupture. Two couriers are arrived from France, neither of which brought over the recall of the French Ambassador, but only permission to return to France, and to leave the management of affairs to his secretary.

The warlike preparations go on still, but the fleet is far from being ready for sea.

Madrid, June 4. Mr. Fitzherbert's arrival here last Saturday was attended with one very remarkable circumstance: he brought his credentials in one hand and the decision of the National Assembly, on the right of making war and peace, in the other. This, it must be acknowledged,

was a very politic manner of opening his commission. The Spanish Court could not but be sensibly affected by an implied disregard of the Family Compact.

The Ministry, however, still continue to talk in a very high tone; and to intimate that Spain is able, without any foreign aid, to assert her own rights, in case of a rupture with England.

But, notwithstanding this outward shew of spirit and self-sufficiency, Administration cannot totally conceal their secret alarms. They dread a revolution like that which has taken place in France; and it is the fear of domestic disturbances, not the chimerical sovereignty of Nootka Sound, that has occasioned all the bustle of warlike preparation.

Vienna, June 5. The king has renewed to the Jews established in the countries under his dominion the protection they have hitherto enjoyed. His majesty has at the same time dispensed with all military service, and the artillery men and baggage of that nation, which are still with the army, will be sent home.

Petersburgh, June 8. Yesterday a fire broke out in the laboratory belonging to the artillery, where was a great magazine of powder, bombs, &c. and the building blew up in the air. The number of persons who have lost their lives is not yet known. Luckily the fire did not spread beyond the artillery ground.

Florence, June 15. An alarming commotion has lately broke out here, owing to the discontents of the people, on account of the high price of provisions. The mob rose in a tumultuous manner, and plundered the Jews, and the dwelling-houses of several merchants, before a sufficient number of the citizens could be armed to stop their progress: at last, about 1000 citizens were armed, and stationed in the principal quarters of the city. They have been since gradually increased to 14,000, and the peace of the city is now, in a great measure, restored. About 100 of the rioters are committed to prison, among whom are several women and priests. Several threatening letters have been since posted up, denouncing vengeance upon some of the heads of the Regency, if the price of bread is not immediately lowered, and the prisoners released within three days; but as a very strong guard is kept up, little regard is paid to these threats.

Stockholm, June 15. The fleets of Sweden and Russia engaged four different times in forty-eight hours, on the 3d and 4th instant, between Se-skar and Cronstadt; but the Russians avoiding a close and general action, and always veering towards Cronstadt, nothing decisive has taken place. Two of their ships were much disabled. The Duke of Sudermania

has taken post at Bioroko, in which position he maintains an open communication between the grand fleet and the fleet of galleys, and at the same time compels the Russian fleet to keep their present station, that Cronstadt may not be left exposed. Our fleet is also perfectly well stationed for the purposes of repairing the trifling damages it has sustained, providing itself with water, stores, &c. and keeping the entrance of Wyburg blocked up.—This engagement had been magnified into an almost total defeat of the Swedish fleet.

Warsaw, June 16. The Diet have for these eight days been employed in discussing the question relative to the prorogation of the present Diet, when, after some debates, it was carried that the present Diet should be prorogued until the 7th of February next, when universals are to be issued for the calling of a new Diet.

Vienna, June 16. A great scarcity still prevails in Constantinople, notwithstanding the efforts of the Porte to obviate it, as nothing can balance the loss of Moldavia and Wallachia, which were the granaries both of the capital, and of Rometia and Bulgaria. A calamity of this nature must have great influence on the politics of the Cabinet of Constantinople, which, notwithstanding all the preparations and alliances which it has contracted with different Powers, cannot come to a resolution to break off the negotiation with their enemies, and send back the Commissioners.

Vienna, June 23. The Diet of Hungary are at this moment nearly in the same situation as the States General of France were the latter end of May, last year. The two Chambers cannot agree on any point; and it is feared that the preparations made for the coronation will be rendered useless for a while.

His Majesty has, by a decree of the 8th instant, reinstated, in all his rights and possessions, situated in Austrian Silesia, Count de Shafgotsch, Prince Bishop of Breslau, who has been deprived of them since 1786; and they write from Johannesburg, the residence of the Prince Bishop, that this news has caused the greatest joy amongst the inhabitants of the environs, who have arrived in crowds to felicitate the Prince Bishop upon the occasion.

B E R L I N.

The king left this place on the 10th instant, at three in the morning, and at nine he got to Frankfort on the Oder; where, taking into his carriage Field Marshal the Duke of Brunswick, he proceeded on to head his grand army in Silesia.

A meeting of the Ambassadors of the Belligerent Powers is to be held immediately at Reichenbach. The Prince de Reals, who has received orders from

King Leopold, his master, to repair thither, left Berlin the 12th instant, for that purpose.

The Prussian Prime Minister, and all the Ambassadors, are gone to Silesia, to attend the king.

Preparations for war are, however, carrying on in all parts with great vigour, though much will depend on the issue of the above meeting at Reichenbach, where, no doubt, the terms proposed by Prussia and her allies will be discussed.

Letters from Warsaw mention the arrival of news from Berlin, containing an assertion, "That the Cabinet of St. James's had assured that of Berlin, that it would take a direct and active interest in the politics and military operations of Prussia, to preserve the balance of the North, and of Europe in general," which, of course, will contribute to peace.

Frankfort, July 1. The Ministers of the several Electors are nearly all assembled. The Prince de Sacken and the Count de Goertz, named by the Elector of Brandenburg, arrived yesterday; as did also Baron de Deel, named by the Elector of Mentz; Counts de Scoonberg, de Loben, and de Riancourt, from the Elector of Saxony; Baron de Bartenstein, from the Elector of Bohemia; Baron de Vendenfels, from the Elector of Cologne, and Baron de Hugel, from the Elector of Treves.

Berlin, July 3. General de Kalkstein, who was sent for to the king, is gone to Dresden, with a declaration, that his majesty could not accept of the neutrality; and to give further weight to this declaration, the troops under Prince Frederick are ordered to march straight to Sagan.

Paris.

CEREMONY OF THE GRAND CONFEDERATION AT PARIS, ON THE ANNIVERSARY OF THEIR FREEDOM.

We present our readers with an account of a spectacle that has no parallel in history.

That a king, who but a twelvemonth ago was despotic, and twenty-four millions of people, who were slaves, should, in so short a space, have undergone such a change—he lowered to the proper station of a chief magistrate—they elevated to the just standard of free men—and all agreeing to meet together, and swear upon the altar to preserve a system they had erected, is so splendid an era in the annals of human affairs, as to call forth all the powers of the bard, the philosopher, and the historian; and we trust the ablest pens will be employed in its description.

A proclamation was published by the king, on the 13th, arranging the whole order

order of the procession, and appointing the *Sieur de la Fayette* Major General of the Federation; and, in this quality, his orders were to be considered as coming immediately from the king. The *Sieur de Gouvion* was appointed Major General *en second*.

On Tuesday, the 13th, the king reviewed the Deputies from the eighty-three Departments of the Nation, on which occasion the populace filled the air with shouts of *Vive le Roi*. Since the arrival of the Deputies at Paris, his Majesty's body guard had been composed of draughts from them, the troops of the line, and the Parisian guards.

At the Metropolitan Church, *Te Deum* was performed, with a band consisting of all the performers of the Royal Academy of Music, and those belonging to the various places of public amusement. The Electors, the Representatives of the Commons of Paris, the Deputies of the National Departments, twelve Members of the National Assembly, and a vast concourse of people attended.

By way of introduction to the *Te Deum* a *Hierodram*, composed of verses from the Psalms and books of Prophets, applicable to the purpose of the ceremony, was performed. An overture by *M. des Augiers*, composed for the occasion, communicated the most lively impressions, and produced the grandest effects. The memorable evening that preceded July 14, 1789, was described with all the truth of expression; a song of victory announced the fall of the baleful castle where despotism held his feat; a citizen called on the victorious people to give thanks to the Supreme Disposer of events;—*Populi laudate Deum*, and a grand chorus, which began the *Te Deum*, answered the call of the citizen.

On Wednesday morning, at six o'clock, all the persons appointed to assist in the procession assembled on the Boulevards, between the gate of St. Martin and the gate of St. Antoine, and the procession was arranged in the following order:

- A Troop of Horse, with a Standard, and Six Trumpets.
- One division of the Music, consisting of several hundred instruments.
- A Company of Grenadiers.
- The Electors of the City of Paris.
- A Company of Volunteers.
- The Assembly of the Representatives of the Commons.
- The Military Committee.
- A Company of Chasseurs.
- A Band of Drums.
- The Presidents of the Districts.
- The Deputies of the Commons, appointed to take for them the Federal Oath.

VOL. V.

The Sixty Administrators of the Municipality, with the City Guards.

Second Division of Music.

A Battalion of Children, carrying a Standard, with the words—"The Hopes of the Nation."

A detachment of the Colours of the National Guard of Paris.

A Battalion of Veterans.

The Deputies of the Thirty-two first Departments of the Nation, in alphabetical order.

The ORIFLAME; OR, GRAND STANDARD OF THE KING, borne by a *Corvette-blanche* of France, in the first rank of the Deputies of the troops of the line, composed of Marshalls of France.

General Officers.

Officers of the Staff.

Subaltern Officers.

Commissioners of War.

Invalids.

Lieutenants of the Marshalls of France.

Deputies of Infantry.

Deputies of Cavalry.

Deputies of Hussars, Dragoons, and Chasseurs.

General Officers and Deputies of the Marine, according to rank.

The Deputies of the forty-one last Departments, in alphabetical order.

A Company of Volunteer Chasseurs.

A Company of Cavalry, with a Standard and two Trumpets.

The procession being formed in this manner, made a most noble appearance; for the varieties of emblematic ornaments were endless. Every Order was marked by distinguishing indications of the district from which they came, or the body which they represented; and in doing this, much fruitful fancy had been employed to make the marks serve for ornament as well as distinction.

The Military Deputies had only their side-arms.

In each division a banner, indicative of the department, was borne by the oldest person in the first rank, and the ranks were formed eight abreast.

The procession passed along the streets of St. Denis, of the Feronnerie, St. Honore, Royale, to the Place of Louis XV. where they halted, and the detachment of the colours of the National Guard of Paris opening to the right and left received into the centre

THE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY,

who were thus surrounded and escorted by the body who had before protected them.

The procession then moved on through the Cours la Reine along the Quay to the L bridge

bridge of boats, over which they passed, and from whence they entered the Champ de Mars.

In entering the Champ de Mars, the cavalry marched off to the right, and ranged themselves in the exterior line on the opposite side to the entrance. The company of Grenadiers formed under the steps of the Amphitheatre, as well as all the companies that were employed as escorts.

The civil bodies took the places allotted to them in the Amphitheatre. The battalion of children formed about a hundred paces from the Grand Altar, crossing the Champ de Mars, but facing the Altar.

While the National Assembly passed through the Triumphal Arch, the escort of colours passed through the two lateral gates, and the Members took their seats on the right and left of the Chair of State, and the Chair of their own President.

The Battalion of Veterans was placed a hundred paces behind the Altar, across the Champ de Mars, but facing the Altar.

The detachments of National Guards, appointed to take the Oath, ranged themselves each under the banner indicative of his place in the Amphitheatre.

The music, now all collected into one immense band, occupied the side of the platform under the Altar, next to the Invalids; the band of drums the opposite side.

The detachment of Cavalry, that closed the procession, formed the exterior line on the side where they entered, opposite to the first detachment.

While the Deputies were taking their seats, the entrances to the tier of elevated benches, that surrounded this immense Amphitheatre, were opened, and the people of all ranks and of both sexes, the ladies all dressed in white, took their places. These benches, rising thirty in number above one another, and extending an immense way, were capable of containing, as it is said, 300,000 persons.

Their Majesties entered the Champ de Mars through the Military School, and took their places, to assist in the ceremony, in a superb box erected for the occasion, and elevated about fifteen feet.

The foreign Ministers took their places in an elegant box near them.

As soon as they were seated, after a solemn invocation to God, the grand standard and all the banners of the several departments were brought up to the platform, and received benedictions; after which they were carried back to their several stations. High Mass was then celebrated; after which the Nation, thus assembled, proceeded to the great object of the day.

The Major-General having announced the Solemnity, the Assembly all rose, and

the King approached the Grand Altar, and swore, in the presence of God, and of several hundred thousands of his people—

"I, Louis, Citizen, King of the French, do swear that I will employ the whole power delegated to me by the constitutional Law of the State, to maintain the Constitution, and enforce the execution of the Law."

His Majesty was followed by the President of the National Assembly, who took the oath to the Nation, the Law, and the King, while all the other Members, holding up their right hands, pronounced *Je le jure*.

The *Sieur de la Fayette* (we give him his own appellation) then took the oath for himself, and all the other Deputies of the eighty-three Departments of the National Guards, who, all standing, pronounced after him *Je le jure*: and these words, with uplifted hands, were solemnly pronounced by every individual of the immense assembly.

THE DRUM was then sung; and never was there an occasion where a solemn thanksgiving to God was more proper, or when it was given with more fervor of devotion, or a purer gratitude of heart. The performance was lofty beyond the powers of description. Never did France see such an orchestra, and never surely did the world behold such an audience! Their numbers baffled the eye to reckon: their shouts rent the skies, when, in the enthusiasm of joy, they mingled acclamations of rapture with the effusions of piety; and yet, in their attention to the grand and solemn parts of the national passion, silence the most profound testified the interest that they felt, and decorum, order, peace, and concord, reigned through the immense multitude.

The ceremony being ended, the procession moved off in the order in which it entered, and then the detachments filed off to the tents in the adjacent grounds, where a collation was provided, of which, strange as it may sound, several hundred thousands partook. Every part of the neighbouring country was covered with tents, and in various appointed places dinner and wine were delivered to the poor gratis.

A grand illumination closed the triumphs of the day, and the only breach of the peace that took place through the whole was provoked by the stubborn obstinacy of some inveterate Aristocrats, who did not light up their houses, or who had fled with their domesticks, and left their windows dark emblems of their own minds. They fell a prey to the indignation of the populace; and all the massacre of this day, so much dreaded in anticipation, was the massacre of some thousand panells of glass.

M. D'Or-

M. D'Orleans attended, and sat in his place as one of the Members of the National Assembly. He had gained much popularity by a short appeal to his country, in which he called upon them to try him, if they had any charge to exhibit against him, but to try him, not by Judges, but by a Jury.

Another account says—The festival was truly popular; for the Chiefs of the Districts returned the tickets which they had received from the Hotel de Ville for themselves and their friends; generously observing, that after so glorious a revolution, to which the people had so largely contributed, and on so solemn a day, there should be no distinction of ranks; and that they would therefore mix promiscuously with their fellow-citizens in the general felicity.

The avenues to the rows being free, every seat was occupied by six in the morning; nay, many families had taken their places at ten the preceding night, a night as cold, stormy, and uncomfortable, as any in November; yet such was their ardour to view the approaching scene, that they sat out the night contentedly, wet to the skin, not an individual offering to move from his seat. The morning, too, was very unfavourable, as it rained, with very few and short intervals, from seven o'clock till one. Even at the benediction of the colours a smart shower fell on the uncovered heads of the sacred Ministers.

Owing to the unskillfulness, or inattention, of the Engineer, a third-part of the *Champ de Mars* was filled with water; yet the National Guard, to the number of 4000, who had been on duty there from ten o'clock the evening before, on the cessation of each shower, danced cheerfully round the altar, and rather than break the mystic circle, waded up to their knees in water with great alacrity, keeping due time to the measure of the drums, fifes, &c. the spectators ever-and-anon encouraging them with *ça, ira, ça, ira*, the burden of a new song, which predicts that all will end well.

At the conclusion of the ceremony, the Deputies of the National Assembly, those of the Provinces, and the Commons of Paris, partook of a cold collation, prepared, by the King's order, at the *Chateau de la Muette*, in the *Bois de Boulogne*.

The wind was so high that great-part of the grand effect which the *Te Deum* would otherwise have had was lost.

The King, Queen, and their suite, accompanied by the foreign Ministers, went in a cavalcade of carriages to the Military School, and passed through that house to the gallery erected in its front for their reception, which was ornamented in a most magnificent style, the pillars being crowned with a new order *à la Fédéra-*

tion. The King was dressed in blue and gold, with his royal mantle, and a hat and feather with a superb diamond.

The Bishop of Autun was honoured with the important duty of celebrating the mass, and administering the sacred occasional offices.

Many pieces of ordnance were planted towards the river. When M. de la Fayette took the oath for the whole of the Military Orders of the realm, the Federative Deputies drew their swords, held them up in the air, and all repeated at the same instant, each for himself—*Jefe jure*. A signal gun announced this to the park of artillery, and a general volley proclaimed it to the world.

In like manner, when the President of the National Assembly, in the name of all the Civil Orders of the realm, took the same oath, there was a second discharge, and a third accompanied the oath of the King. It was in one of these that an accident happened by the bursting of a gun. It is differently mentioned: one letter informs us that four men were killed, another, that one man lost only his hand.

When the captors and demolishers of the Bastille entered the *Champ de Mars*, such united shouts of joy and triumph were perhaps never heard: conceiving that dreadful prison to have been one of the grandest engines of despotism and cruelty, the multitude were frantic in the expression of their joy, when they beheld those enter who had levelled it with the dust.

All the streets which communicate with the *Champ de Mars* were furnished with scaffolds for the use of those who were not privileged with seats on the spot—the tops of the houses, and every window within view, were also occupied.

ANSWER OF THE KING OF THE FRENCH,

To the Federative Deputies of the Eighty-three Departments of the National Guards, at the Thuilleries, on the 13th Instant.

"I receive, with much sensibility, the testimonies of love and attachment which you give me in the name of the National Guards, united in all parts of France.

"May the solemn day, on which you are to renew in common your oath to the Nation, pass over without dissension, and may it serve to promote peace, and establish the reign of the Laws and of Liberty throughout the realm!

"Defenders of the public Peace, of the Laws and of Liberty! consider that your first duty is the maintenance of order, and obedience to the laws; that the benefits of a free constitution ought to be equal to all; that the more free we are, the more serious become offences against

the liberty and property of others—the more criminal become acts of violence and outrage, when they are not committed by command.

“ Report to your fellow-citizens, that I wish I could speak to them all as I speak to you here.—Tell them that their King is their Father, their Brother, their Friend; that he cannot be happy but in their welfare; great but in their glory; powerful but in their liberty; rich but in their prosperity; and that he can only suffer in their afflictions. Above all, make known the words, or rather the sentiments of my heart in the humble cottages, and in the retreats of the unfortunate. Tell them that though I cannot go along with you into their Asylums, I wish to do so; and that both in my affection, and by the laws which are the protectors of the feeble, I will watch over them. Say, in fine, to the different provinces of my kingdom, that the more that circumstances will permit me to fulfil the wish I have formed of visiting them with my family, the happier it will make my heart.”

COUNTRY NEWS.

Torbay, June 19. The fleet here are in the highest order and spirits possible; and it is expected, in the course of a few days, with the junction of the ships from Plymouth and Portsmouth, we shall have at least forty sail of the line.

His Royal Highness of Clarence is indefatigable in his attention to his ship the Valiant.

Coventry, July 22. On Thursday last, amidst an immense concourse of people, 15 boats from the collieries in the neighbourhood of Wednesbury, by the Birmingham canal, through the Aqueduct at Fazley, &c. arrived here, each containing 20 tons of that coal, which has already reduced the price of Warwickshire coal from 8d. to 6d. per cwt. and the Staffordshire from 10d. to 7½. whereby this city, in this necessary article only, will save upwards of 5000l. per ann.

Exeter. A few days ago a very melancholy accident happened in digging a well at the building of the New gaol Exeter. After the ground had been sunk to a depth of near ninety feet, the earth suddenly fell in, and buried one of the workmen twenty-five feet under it. Every attempt was made to get him out, but to no effect, as it was found impossible to render him any assistance.

DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

By the Berrington East India ship, we understand, that as soon as the news of the attack of Tipoo Saib on the King of Travancore arrived at Calcutta, the Governor General and Council resolved to defend their ally, and to repel, by the most vigorous means, the sanguinary tyrant. The

Houghton and Earl of Chesterfield were immediately ordered to Madras with a detachment of artillery, under Lieutenant Colonel Deare, and other reinforcements were ordered to be made ready with all dispatch.

Lieutenant Colonel Cockrell had marched with the sixth battalion of Bengal infantry, towards Madras.

It is also said, that Earl Cornwallis was himself to go to Madras, and, by a treaty with the Mahrattas, was determined to extirpate this restless foe of the English.

General Meadows, arrived at Madras in the Vestal, on the 23d of February.

A letter from Antigua, dated June 13, 1790, says, “The disturbances in Martinico are become more serious than ever; and I inclose you a printed account of some transactions there. But we are in momentary expectation of something still more serious; for I am well assured, by a gentleman of veracity who passed by St. Pierre on the morning of the 10th, that he saw a very heavy fire from two forts that guard the entrance of the Bay, and also from the musquetry on shore; and the rising grounds in the neighbourhood of the town were also covered with women and children, who seemed to have fled from thence; his instructions were to have called there in his way to this island, but he did not think it prudent or safe, as all seemed to be in confusion. We wait with impatience for further information.”

July 1. Government received a second time dispatches from Lieutenant Riou, brought, as the first were, by a Dutch vessel. They are not of much later date than the first. They bear, however, that he had got the Guardian into port at the Cape, and are so much the more agreeable, as doubts began to be publicly circulated of his arrival there.

By the Pigot Indianman, which sailed from Madras so late as the latter end of February, accounts are received that Tipoo Saib had, at that date, made no second attempt on Travancore. A rumour was still in circulation, that he had been severely wounded in his first attack; and to that accident chiefly his remaining quiet was ascribed.

5. Mr. Meredith, who has come home passenger in the Duke of Buccleugh from China, has given information to the Secretary of State, that he had been upon a voyage of speculation in the South Seas, with Mr. Cox, and had touched at Otahite, where he learned that the Bounty, late Capt. Bligh, had returned there with only part of the crew; and without the captain; and that she had sailed but a few days before their arrival, with a promise that they would return in a short time. It is evident, from this account, that Christian and his crew are turned pirates.

6. Letters from Carlscrone, *via* Holland, received by yesterday's mail, state, that a terrible fire had broke out in that city, which had entirely consumed two thirds of the buildings: the docks and fleet were fortunately preserved, but the army bake-houses, &c. were totally reduced to ashes. This conflagration is supposed to have originated from some incendiaries, as the flames burst out in several parts at nearly the same moment.

Extract of a Letter from Charles-Town.

6. "A more abundant crop of rice was never known in this State than that of the present year. Indigo has not succeeded quite so well, on account of an unusual frost about the latter end of September last; at the same time our rivers above the tide waters are so low, for want of rain, that it is with the utmost difficulty the rice can be got down in sufficient quantities to supply the European demand, which is this year very considerable. Machines for boating out the rice, and ploughs, are coming very rapidly into fashion, and from this circumstance alone we may predict that any future importation of slaves will be rendered unnecessary, as the far greater part of the labour will be saved."

8. Came on the trial of Renwick Williams, the Monster, indicted upon the statute of 1st George I. for assaulting Miss Ann Porter, on the king's highway, and feloniously and maliciously intending to cut and destroy her cloaths.

After examining evidence, Mr. Justice Buller summed up the whole with his usual abilities, accompanied by numberless appropriate observations. He said, if the Jury should pronounce the prisoner guilty, he should reserve the question of law, as it was a new case, for the opinion of the Twelve Judges.

The Jury pronounced the prisoner—Guilty.

The Judge then respited judgment till the next December sessions, and ordered the recognizances on the other prosecutions to be respited till that time, in order that the opinions of the Judges might be obtained. The trial lasted upwards of eight hours. The Court was more crowded than ever was known.

10. The Dutch Squadron came up to Spithead, and are as follows:

Ships.	Guns.	Commanders.
Vryheid	26	{ V. Ad. Kinbergen
Venwayting	68	{ Captain Aberfon
Guelderland	68	{ Rear-A. Ryncereld
Brakel	36	{ Capt. Tilleken
Munni Kendon	44	{ ———— Rolls
Pollux	44	{ — Blois VanTreslang
Venus	26	{ ———— Mafchop
Pyle	16	{ ———— Alliers
Portilur	16	{ Lt. Oldonhaufon
		{ ———— Beyer

Courier 16 — Marshall
Spenerne 12 — Blois VanTreslang
12. Alderman Macaulay and R. C. Glyn, Esq. the two sheriffs elect, signed the bonds at the Chamberlain's office, Guildhall, to take upon themselves that office on the 28th of September next.

The aqueduct at Fazeley being now completed, to open the junction with the Duke of Bridgewater's grand trunk, the Birmingham, Coventry, and Oxford canals, Mr. Brindley's great plan seems, at length, fully accomplished. The ports of London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull, have thereby an inland communication; as likewise the great trading towns of Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and Sheffield, which must at all times be highly advantageous to the commercial interests of the kingdom at large, more particularly whenever the coasting trade shall be in danger of being captured in time of war.

MARRIED.

At St. George's, Hanover-square, C. Yorke, Esq. of Lincoln's-Inn, Knight of the Shire for the county of Cambridge, to Miss Harriet Manningham, eldest daughter of Charles Manningham, Esq. of Thorpe, in the county of Surry.

Mr. Hugh Russell, of May's-buildings, to Miss Anne Seymour, of Marybone.

Mr. Wilson, oilman, of Fleet-market, to Miss Anne Davis, of Steyning, in Suffex.

At St. George's, Bloomsbury, Mr. Oswald, of Bucklersbury, to Miss Greeve, of Great Queen-street.

Mr. Charles Hancock, of the Stock Exchange, to Miss Burrell, daughter of Peter Burrell, Esq. of the South Sea-house.

At Chigwell, in Essex, Mr. Edward Toller, Professor, in Doctor's-commons, to Miss Burford, of the above place.

At Islington, Mr. White, of Helmet-row, Old-street, to Miss Harris, of the same place.

H. Prideaux, jun. Esq. second son of H. Prideaux, Esq. of Place Noun, in Cornwall, to Miss St. Aubyn, eldest daughter of the late Sir John St. Aubyn, Bart. and sister to the present.

At St. Luke's church, Old-street, Geo. Urlin, Esq. City-road, to Miss S. Clarke, of Tabernacle-row, City-road.

At Richmond, John Thorpe, Esq. to Mrs. Jane Holland.

At Marybone, Mr. Rupert Green, of Newman-street, to Miss Slade, only daughter of Mr. Edmund Slade, of the Borough.

At St. James's church, Mr. Richard Mudd, surgeon, to Miss Catherine Wheeler, of St. James's-street.

Mr.

Mr. William Thompson, of Islington, to Miss Phipps, of Great Winchester-street, Austin friars.

At St. Swithin's, London Stone, Mr. Robert Southey, of Tower-street, to Miss Mary Sergeant, of Cannon-street.

At St. George's, Hanover-square, Sir William Wake, of Courteen Hall, in the county of Northampton, Bart. to Miss Sitwell, only daughter of Francis Sitwell, Esq. of Renishaw-hall, in the county of Derby.

At St. George's church, Hanover-square, Humphrey Butler, Esq. Member of the Irish Parliament, to Miss White.

William Young, Esq. of the Strand, to Miss Hervey Spooner, of Bedford-square.

Robert Pemberton, jun. Esq. to Miss Lloyd, both of Shrewsbury.

The Rev. H. Heigham, Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge, to Miss Eliza Symonds, second daughter of Thomas Symonds, Esq. Captain in the Royal Navy.

At Cumber, Berks, William Henry Beauchamp, Esq. third son of the late Sir William Beauchamp Proctor, Bart. to Miss Frances Davie, niece of Sir John Davie, Bart.

At St. Peter's, Carmarthen, Mr. Shelton Covell, to Miss Higgon, late of Stanmore, Middlesex.

At Lainshaw, Scotland, John Fergusson, Esq. the younger, of Castloch, to Miss Cunningham, eldest daughter of William Cunningham, Esq. of Lainshaw.

At Edinburgh, Captain Kennedy, of the 44th regiment, to Miss Helen Blackburn, daughter of the deceased Mr. Hugh Blackburne, merchant, in Glasgow.

By special licence, Henry Method, Esq. to Miss Eden, eldest daughter of Sir John Eden, Bart. at his seat at Windlesone, in the county of Durham.

At St. Botolph's, Bishopsgate, Mr. James Jarvis, of the South Sea-house, to Miss Mary Van Voorst, of Broad-street-buildings.

Mr. William Taylor, of St. Paul's-church-yard, druggist, to Miss Harris, daughter of Robert Harris, Esq. of Croydon.

At Piddlestone, Herts, Mr. William Thomas, oilman, of Great Russell-court, Covent-garden, to Miss Holder, of the White-house.

Mr. John Clement Bignell, of Newport Pagnel, to Miss Cox, of Shoe-lane.

At St. George's church, Hanover-square, the Rev. John Moleworth, brother of Sir William Moleworth, Bart. to Miss Catharine St. Aubyn, second sister of Sir John St. Aubyn, Bart.

At St. Mary's, Islington, Mr. Edward Burrows, of the Upper-street, to Miss Chatell, of the same place.

John Crutchfield, of Highgate, Esq. to Miss Marshall, of New Ormond-street.

At Marybone church, Dr. A. Coventry, of Edinburgh, who was lately appointed Professor of Agriculture in the University there, to Miss Hastie, eldest daughter of James Hastie, Esq. of Great Portland-street.

At Bridgetown, in the West-Indies, Laurence Grenholme, Esq. of the 4th battalion of the 60th regiment, to Miss Wadman.

At Mitcham, in Surry, John Griffith, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law, to Miss Maslar, eldest daughter of John Maslar, Esq. of Mitcham.

Mr. Thomas Lovell, of Marybone, to Miss Mary Denton, of Weston-place, St. Pancras.

Mr. Vernour, of Gerard-street, to Miss Hammond, of High Wycombe, Bucks.

Mr. Frederic Teufel, of Coleman-street, to Miss Utterton, of Waltham Abbey.

Captain Dawson, of the 31st regiment of foot, to Miss Sturges, daughter of Mr. Sturges, Collector of Excise at Leeds.

At Bampton, Devon, Mr. Samuel Gundry, jun. merchant, of Bridport, to Miss Bowden, second daughter of Richard Bowden, Esq.

At Hawkebury, the Rev. Lewis Clutterbuck, of Newark-house, to Miss Partridge, of Hillsley, in the county of Gloucester.

D I E D.

At Aix la Chapelle, the Right Hon. Lord Heathfield, and closed a life of military renown at the most critical season for his memory. He had acquired the brightest honours of a soldier, the love and reverence of his country; and he fell in an exertion beyond his strength, from an anxiety to close his life on the rock where he had acquired his fame. Even the last efforts of age and decay were in him proofs of a noble mind; for, after he had wasted his strength in the service of his country, he devoted his last act to private gratitude.

The day of his death was actually fixed for the day of his marriage, from an endearing wish that the object of his youthful love might be the relic of his honoured age, and that he might exalt to the rank of a British Peeress, the tender and affectionate female, who, in a foreign island, had soothed him on the bed of sickness.

At Kentish Town, Miss Mary Ommanney, aged 16 years, second daughter of Edward Ommanney, Esq. of Bloomsbury-square.

At the Hudson's Bay-house, Fenchurch-street, Thomas Hutchins, Esq. Correspondent

poudent Secretary to the Honourable the Hudson's Bay Company, and many years a Governor of one of the settlements belonging to the said Company in Hudson's Bay.

Mrs. Leader Winter, aged 77, relict of Joshua Winter, Esq. of Bishop Stortford, Herts.

Richard Lomax, Esq. of Loughton, in Essex.

In Leather-lane, Holborn, Mr. Fletcher, formerly an eminent bookseller in Cambridge. He was the only person, the late Mr. Wragg excepted, that enjoyed Mr. Bowyer's gift of 30*l.* per annum, as a journeyman printer, for his knowledge of the Greek language. It was as singular as unfortunate, that about the time that Mr. Fletcher's illness precluded him from many of the comforts of life, his brother, whom he supposed to be living in great affluence in America, arrived in London in the most indigent circumstances, and being equally disappointed in receiving assistance from the only friend he could apply to, he was necessitated to go into St. Thomas's Hospital, where he lately died.

At Amsterdam, in the 82*d* year of his age, Nicholas Muilman, Esq. many years one of the partners in the house of Mess. Muilman and sons, at Amsterdam.

At Wellingborough, aged 77, after a long and painful illness, Mrs. Scriven, relict of the late Rev. Mr. Scriven, Rector of Twywell, Northamptonshire.

Mrs. Keate, wife of the Rev. W. Keate, Rector of Laverton, in the county of Somerset, and sister to the late Baron Burland.

The Rev. Mr. More, Curate and Lecturer of St. Margaret's, Westminster.

The Rev. Mr. Leutwenius, Pastor of the Swedish congregation in London.

At Falmouth, on her return from Lisbon, Miss Wyckeham, eldest daughter of William Humphry Wyckeham, Esq. of Swallecliffe, Oxfordshire.

At Walton, in Suffolk, Mr. James Dallinger, late of West Smithfield.

At H. Berens', Esq. at St. Mary Cray, in Kent, a labouring man of the name of Crofs, aged 105 years. When Onslow, Esq. sold the estate, he delivered old Crofs, with his jack als, to draw water, and compelled the purchaser to agree to maintain him for life.

On the 13*th* of April last, at Quebec, Allan Macdonald, Esq; late Captain in his Majesty's 84*th* regiment.

Nicholas Coates, of Fishburn, near York, aged 97. What is very remarkable, his wife died the day before, and on Tuesday they were both interred in the same grave. Their ages together amounted to 180, and they had been married between 60 and 70 years;

At Oxford, Sir Banks Jenkinson, Bart.

At her house in Gay-street, Bath, Mrs. Coker, relict of the late Cadwallader Coker, Esq.

At Ailshot, Somerset; in the 83*d* year of his age, the Rev. Nathaniel Blake Price.

At Leith, the Rev. T. Scott, Minister of South Leith. He was perfectly well in the morning, and went to see the races, where he was suddenly taken ill, and expired in a few minutes.

Mr. Jasper Jay, of Hoxton-square.

Mrs. Molineux, relict of the late Richard Molineux, Esq. of Alt Grange and New Hale, in the county of Lancaster, the last heir male of that branch of the Earl of Sefton's family.

BANKRUPTS.

Richard Witts Hiscock, of Witney, Oxfordshire, ironmonger. Charles Ross, of Dean-street, Shadwell, dealer and chapman.

George Folingby, late of Inner Temple-lane, London, shoe-maker. Benjamin Wall, of Aylesbury, Bucks, carrier.

John Wood of Stourbridge, Worcester-shire, tallow-chandler. John Mackee, of Dorrington-street, in Coldbath-fields, Middlesex, victualler.

Matthias Coops, otherwise Koops Von Ernst, of Edmonton, Middlesex, merchant. William Strangways, of Aldermanbury, London, taylor.

Joseph Pinckney, of Union-row, Walworth, in the parish of St. Mary, Newington, Surrey, baker.

Anthony Hartshorne, of Bishopsgate-street, London, linen-draper. David Paton, late of Oxford-street, Middlesex, linen-draper.

Samuel Harvey, late of Wickford, Essex, but now a prisoner in the King's-bench, draper. Richard Thomas, of Ludlow, Salop, ironmonger.

Ralph Thomas, of Ludlow, saddler. John Tingle, of Kettering, Northamptonshire, miller. William Hull, of Ludlow, Salop, mercer.

James Fielding, late of Oldham, Lancashire, hardwareman, cheesemonger, and corn-merchant.

Richard Turner late of Alnwick, but now of Broxfield, Northumberland, butcher.

David Read, of the city of Bristol, shop-keeper. William Dickinson, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, dealer and chapman.

Thomas Thomas, of Charing-cross, Middlesex linen-draper. Joseph Fussell, of the city of Bristol, mason and builder.

Henry Ellis, late of Old-street, Middlesex, horse-dealer. Charles Austin, of the parish of St. Martin, in the city of Canterbury,

Kent brick-maker. John Walker, of Bedford-street, Covent garden, Middlesex, woollen-draper.

John Grant, of Cheshunt, Hertfordshire, innholder. John Winn, late of the Old Scotch Arms, Bedfordbury, within the Liberty of Westminster, victualler.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per Ct. reduc.	3 per Ct. Confol.	4 per Ct. Confol.	5 per Ct. Navy.	Long Ann.	Short ditto.	India Stock.	India Ann.	India Bonds.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	3 per Ct. 1731.	New Navy.	Exch. Bills.	Tontine.	Lottery Tickets.
1	160 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	158 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
3	170 $\frac{1}{2}$	73	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	158 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
5	160 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	Shut.	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	Shut.	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
7	170 $\frac{1}{2}$	73	Shut.	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	Shut.	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
9		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	159 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
11		Shut.	Shut.	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	Shut.	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
13		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$		40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
15		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	13 $\frac{1}{2}$		40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
17		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$		12		40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
19			74 $\frac{1}{2}$						40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
21		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21	12		40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
23	172 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	157 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
25		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
27		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
29		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
31		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
33		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
35		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
37		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
39		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
41		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}$				40 pr.	40 pr.					9 $\frac{1}{2}$	151 9s 6d	151 9s 6d	
43		73 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	94 $\frac{1}{2}</$														

By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN.
Height of the Barometer and Thermo-
meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer. Inches, and 100th Parts.		Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.		Weather in July 1795.
	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	8 o'Clock Morning.	11 o'Clock Night.	
J. 27	29 92	29 91	51	56	Cloudy
28	30 29	29 94	59	63	Fair
29	30 86	29 86	68	70	Ditto
30	30 83	29 74	69	74	Showers
J. 1	29 72	29 65	65	72	Fair
2	29 58	29 58	63	59	Change.
3	29 57	29 57	63	69	Fair
4	29 57	29 35	66	67	Change.
5	29 55	29 39	63	65	Rain
6	29 57	29 87	54	61	Cloudy
7	30 13	29 8	59	63	Fair
8	30 7	29 93	64	69	Cloudy
9	29 72	29 73	62	64	Rain
10	29 74	29 54	64	64	Change.
11	29 44	29 56	56	62	Ditto
12	29 56	29 55	55	56	Showers
13	29 48	29 38	60	65	Ditto
14	29 41	29 51	58	58	Ditto
15	29 67	29 78	58	65	Cloudy
16	29 81	29 99	58	65	Fair
17	30 3	29 66	71	65	Ditto
18	29 56	29 66	67	62	Cloudy
19	29 87	29 87	67	73	Fair
20	29 65	29 67	61	59	Rain
21	29 66	29 88	61	66	Cloudy
22	29 84	29 59	59	65	Ditto
23	29 97	29 87	59	65	Ditto
24	29 88	29 97	64	67	Ditto
25	30 13	29 5	59	66	Ditto
26	30 5	29 62	67	59	Ditto
27	30 3	29 63	69	62	Fair

Corn-Exchange, London.
RETURNS of CORN and GRAIN.
 From July 8 to July 13, 1790.

	Quar- ters.	Price.			Avr. Pr. per. Qr.		
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Barley	1238	1392	5	7	1	2	5
Beans	796	1003	0	1	1	5	2
Malt	423	737	2	1	1	14	10
Oats	7700	7277	14	11	18	10	
Peafe	171	289	16	4	1	13	10
Rye	153	226	15	3	1	9	7
Wheat	2555	6873	18	5	2	13	9
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Literary Magazine & British Review.



J. Thomthwaite Sculp.

CARDINAL DUC DE RICHELIEU.

*Published according to Act of Parliament. Sept. 1.st 1790
by C. Forster, N. 47, Poultry*

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